



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>



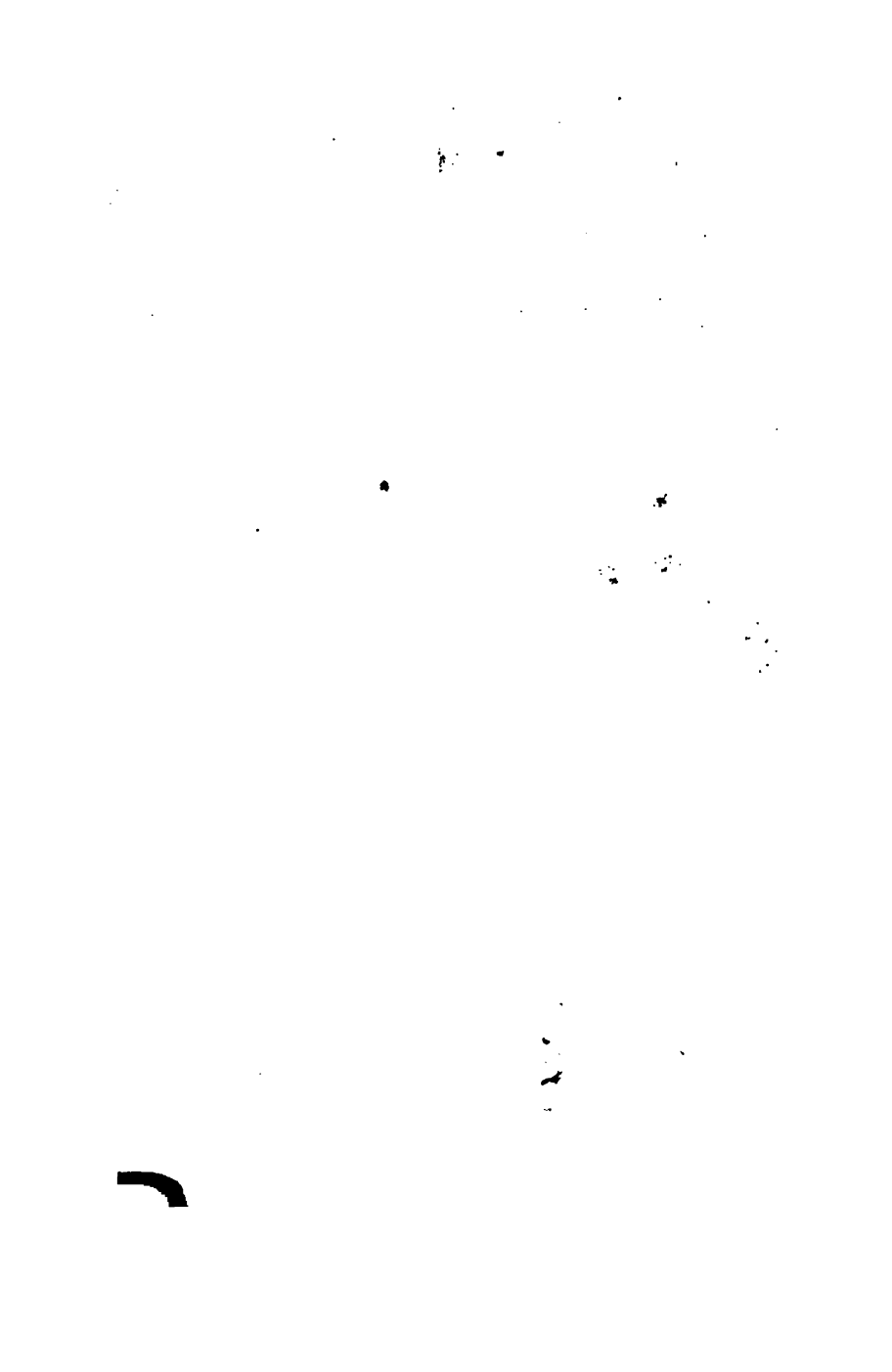
HISTORY
OF
ENGLAND
JOHNS

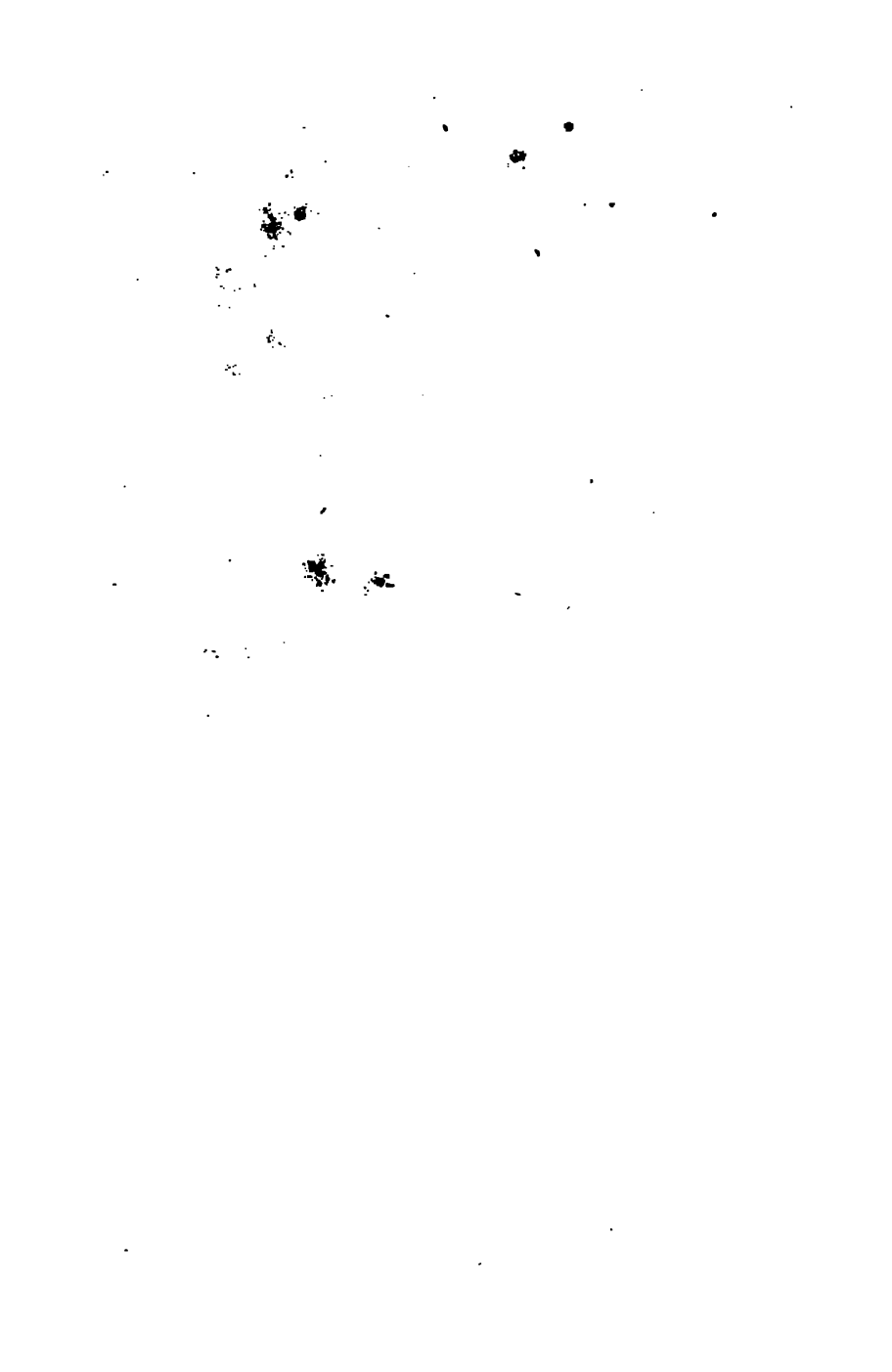


600039378-











HISTORY OF ENGLAND

FOR SCHOOLS

BY
E. NEVILLE JOHNS

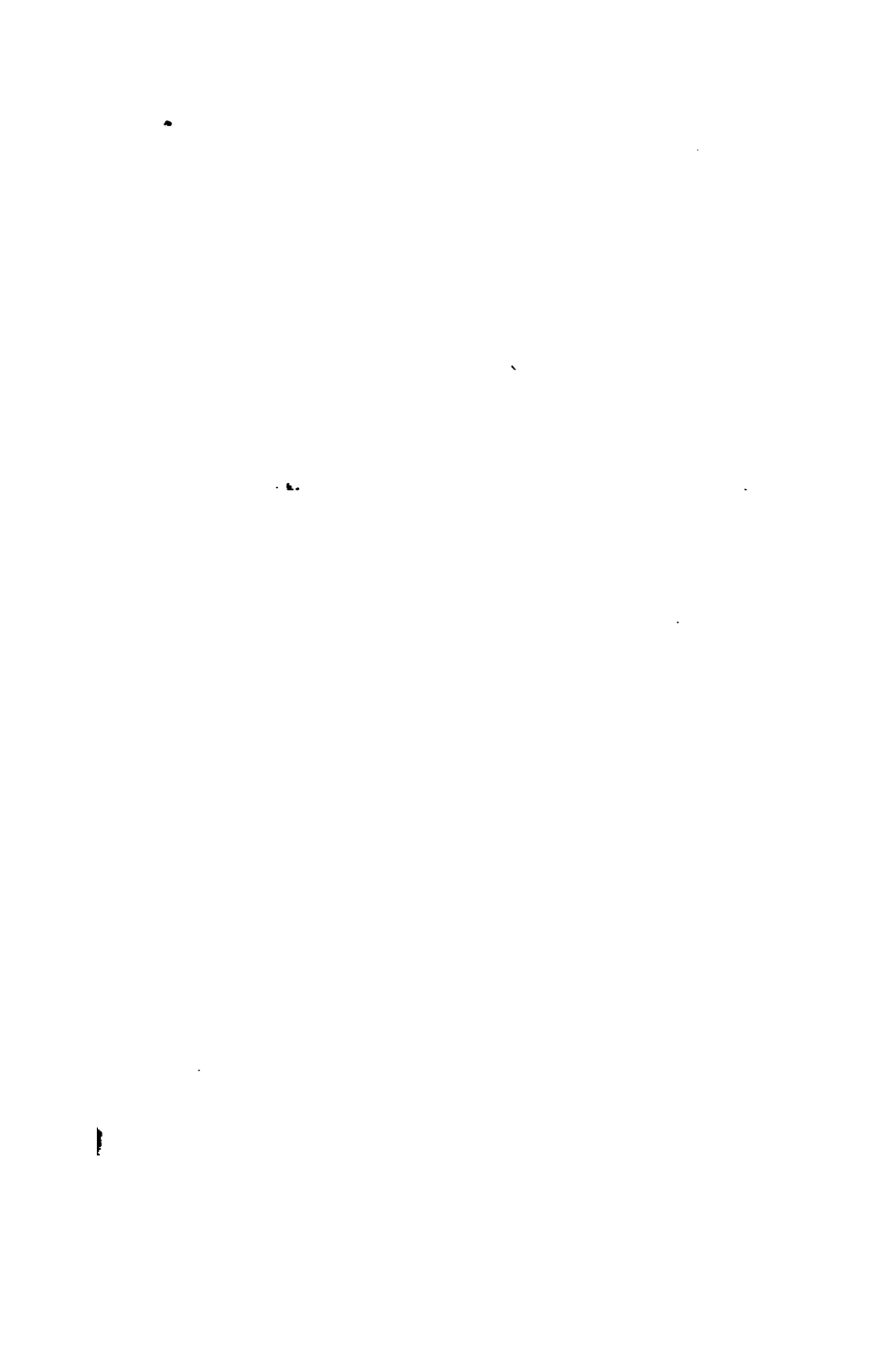
WITH MAPS



LONDON
WM. ISBISTER, LIMITED
56, LUDGATE HILL

1882

226. k. 506.



CONTENTS.

PART I.

FROM THE LANDING OF JULIUS CÆSAR TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST. B.C. 55 to A.D. 1066.

CHAP.	PAGE
I. THE ROMAN PERIOD. B.C. 55 to A.D. 449 . . .	1
II. THE INVASION OF THE ANGLES AND SAXONS . . .	7
III. CONVERSION OF THE ENGLISH TO CHRISTIANITY . . .	14
IV. THE EARLY ENGLISH KINGS	19
V. THE REIGN OF ALFRED THE GREAT. 871—901 . . .	22
VI. THE KINGS OF WESSEX, FROM ALFRED TO ETHELRED. 901—979	26
VII. THE DANISH CONQUEST. 979—1016	31
VIII. THE DANISH KINGS. 1017—1042	36
IX. THE REIGN OF EDWARD THE CONFESSOR. 1042 —1066	40
X. THE REIGN OF HAROLD II. JAN. 6—OCT. 14, 1066	47

PART II.

FROM THE NORMAN CONQUEST TO THE REIGN OF HENRY VII. 1066—1485.

XI. WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR. 1066—1087 . . .	52
XII. WILLIAM II., SURNAMED RUFUS, OR THE RED. 1087—1100	58
XIII. HENRY I., SURNAMED BEAUCLEER, OR FINE SCHOLAR. 1100—1135	62
XIV. STEPHEN OF BLOIS. 1135—1154	68
XV. HOUSE OF ANJOU. HENRY II. 1154—1189. . . .	72
XVI. RICHARD I., SURNAMED CŒUR DE LION, OR LION HEART. 1189—1199.	84
XVII. JOHN, SURNAMED SANSTERRE, OR LACKLAND. 1199—1216	89
XVIII. HENRY III. OF WINCHESTER. 1216—1272 . .	95
XIX. EDWARD I., SURNAMED LONGSHANKS. 1272— 1307	102
XX. EDWARD II. OF CARNARVON. 1307—1327 . . .	114
XXI. EDWARD III. OF WINDSOR. 1327—1377 . . .	121
XXII. EDWARD III. (<i>continued</i>). 1327—1377 . . .	130
XXIII. RICHARD II. OF BORDEAUX. 1377—1399 . .	135

CHAP.	PAGE
XXIV. HENRY IV., SURNAMED BOLINGBROKE. 1399—1413	144
XXV. HENRY V. OF MONMOUTH. 1413—1422	152
XXVI. HENRY VI. 1422—1461	162
XXVII. HENRY VI. (<i>continued</i>). 1422—1461	168
XXVIII. EDWARD IV. 1461—1483	179
XXIX. EDWARD V. APRIL 9TH—JUNE 22ND, 1483	187
XXX. RICHARD III. 1483—1485	193

PART III.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF HENRY VII. TO THE
REVOLUTION. 1485—1688-9.

XXXI. HENRY VII. 1485—1509	198
XXXII. HENRY VIII. 1509—1547	209
XXXIII. HENRY VIII. (<i>continued</i>). 1509—1547	215
XXXIV. EDWARD VI. 1547—1553	224
XXXV. MARY I. 1553—1557	232
XXXVI. ELIZABETH. 1558—1603	244
XXXVII. ELIZABETH (<i>continued</i>). 1558—1603	255
XXXVIII. THE HOUSE OF STUART. JAMES I. 1603—1628	266
XXXIX. CHARLES I. 1625—1649	276
XL. CHARLES I. (<i>continued</i>). 1625—1649	285
XLI. THE COMMONWEALTH. 1649—1660. OLIVER CROMWELL. BORN 1599. DIED 1658	295
XLII. CHARLES II. 1660—1685	304
XLIII. JAMES II. 1685—1688	318

PART IV.

FROM THE REVOLUTION TO THE PRESENT TIME.
1688-9—1880.

XLIV. WILLIAM AND MARY. 1688-9—1694. WILLIAM III. 1702	328
XLV. WILLIAM AND MARY. 1688-9—1694. WILLIAM III. 1702	335
XLVI. QUEEN ANNE. 1702—1714	344
XLVII. HOUSE OF HANOVER, OR OF BRUNSWICK-LUNEBERG. GEORGE I. 1714—1727	351
XLVIII. GEORGE II. 1727—1760	359
XLIX. GEORGE III. 1760—1820	369
L. GEORGE III. (<i>continued</i>). 1760—1820	378
LI. GEORGE IV. 1820—1830	394
LII. WILLIAM IV. 1830—1837	400
LIII. VICTORIA. 1837	405

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

PART I.

FROM THE LANDING OF JULIUS CÆSAR TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

B.C. 55 to A.D. 1066.

CHAPTER I.

THE ROMAN PERIOD. B.C. 55 to A.D. 449.

WHEN first we hear anything about our country its name was not England, but Britain and the people who lived here were not Englishmen, but Britons. At present we often speak of them as the Ancient Britons.

Ancient
Britain.

We do not know much about the Ancient Britons; but Julius Cæsar, a great Roman who lived in their time, tells us that they were very fond of war, and that they went to battle some on foot and some on horseback. They used also chariots with sharp scythes fastened to the wheels, so that, as they drove through the ranks of their enemies, the latter were sometimes mowed down like corn. We also read that the Britons made themselves coats of the skins of wild beasts, and stained their arms and legs with a blue dye.

Manners
of the
Britons.

The people in the south of Britain were not so wild as those who lived in the north; and some of them wore clothes, not of skins but of woollen cloth, woven of many bright colours, perhaps like the tartans of the Scotch Highlanders. They had also chains of gold, or silver, or bronze, round their necks. The priests who taught the Ancient Britons were called Druids, and they seem to have had very high rank and honour.

Now the Roman people, who had conquered a great part of the world, heard of this island, and thought they would add it to the other lands they had already taken for their own.

Julius Cæsar was the first Roman who ever came here. He was a very great general, and had won many battles in France, or Gaul as B.C. 55. it was then called. He crossed over from that land with eighty ships and many brave soldiers. He did not succeed very well in this attempt; but the next year, fifty-four years before Christ, he came again; and although the British chief, Cassivelaunus, fought against him very bravely for a time, he gave in at last, and before Cæsar went home promised to pay the Romans a certain sum of money every year.

Forty-three years after Christ the Emperor Claudius Cæsar determined to conquer Britain. Claudius. A.D. 43. With the help of his two generals, Plautius and Vespasian, he took one town after another, and at length made himself master of the greater part of the island.

The British chief who held out longest against the conquerors was Caradoc, or, as he was called by the Romans, Caractacus. At last a battle took place in which he was beaten, and after it he and his family were taken prisoners to Rome. It is said that the Roman Emperor before whom he was led received him with kindness, and gave him a cottage in which to live.

For a long time the Britons continued to fight, and rebel against the Romans. One British leader,



whose name is very famous, was a woman called Boadicea. Her husband had been King of the Iceni, a people who lived in that part of Britain which is now Norfolk and Suffolk. After his death the Romans took advantage of the unprotected state of that district, and seizing Boadicea beat her, and sold her daughters for slaves. Enraged at this treatment Boadicea, in the year 61, gathered her people round her. With her long hair falling over her shoulders, and spear in hand, she bade them fight bravely and avenge her wrongs and their own. Then she led them out to battle.

Boadicea and her followers did a good deal of mischief; they burnt some of the Roman towns and destroyed London. When this revolt occurred, Suetonius, the Roman governor at that time, was fighting at the other side of the island; but as soon as he returned he overcame Boadicea in a great battle. It is said that eighty thousand of her people were slain; and she, fearing to fall into the hands of the Romans, killed herself.

Julius Agricola, who was Roman governor in this island from 78 to 84, was the real conqueror of Britain. He was not only a good soldier, but a good man. He taught the Britons to read and write the Latin language. He also showed them how to build better houses than the huts they had lived in before; and in many other ways he tried to make them understand the advantages of Roman civilisation. Above all, he wished to prove to them that the Romans could give them peace and safety; and as a great part of the island was still in a very wild state, this was not at all easy. The people of North Britain, who had not yet been subdued by the Romans, often fought against and plundered those who lived to the south of them. He therefore built a line of forts, or little castles, from the Firth of Forth to the Clyde, to serve as a protection to the more peaceably disposed Britons of the south.

Boadicea,
Queen of
the Iceni.
60.

61.

Julius
Agricola.
78-84.

In 120 Hadrian, the Emperor of Rome, visited Britain, and as he found it difficult to keep all the land Agricola had won, he ^{Hadrian. 120.} ordered the erection of a wall of earth or dyke, reaching from the Tyne to the Solway Firth. Another wall was added along the line of Agricola's forts in 139, and between the years 207 and 210 the Emperor Severus had ^{Roman walls and roads.} a stone wall built close to the earthen dyke of Hadrian.

As far as these walls all Britain belonged to Rome, and was governed by Romans. They did not treat the people badly, and, indeed, did a great deal of good in the country. They built a number of beautiful towns, and made some fine roads. Several of the latter have lasted to the present day.

During the time that the Romans were here the Britons first heard about Christ, although it is uncertain when and by whom the Christian religion was first preached in this ^{Christianity in Britain.} country. The town of St. Albans stands near the spot on which it is said that Alban, the first British martyr, was put to death.

When Britain had belonged to the Romans about three hundred years, the Roman people themselves fell into great trouble at home, ^{Decay of the Roman power.} and as several of the nations round made war on them, they were compelled to call ^{380—409.} many of their own soldiers away from Britain to defend Rome.

The eastern coast of North Britain, or Scotland as we now call it, was at this time inhabited by a tribe of people called Picts. The ^{Picts and Scots.} western coast had been invaded and conquered by a different race called Scots, who came over from Ireland. These two races, the Picts and Scots, had fought very savagely together. But now, when the Romans went away from Britain, these northern tribes found it more to their advantage to join their forces in order to invade the south country. Here there were flocks and herds to be stolen, farms to be robbed, and towns to be plundered. For three

hundred years the southern Britons had given their minds to the works of peace, and had left all fighting to the Roman soldiers. Thus the northern savages met with little resistance, and for years committed great havoc.

In those days also strangers from Germany came sailing round the coast, landing at different places, and taking what they could lay their hands on. The poor Britons, after sending in vain to Rome for help, thought the best thing they could do would be to set one tribe of robbers against the others. Thus it came about that they asked the German pirates to help them against the Picts and Scots, and promised to pay them for the service. What came of this arrangement we shall soon see.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What was the name of this country when we first hear of it, and what people then lived here?—
2. What do you remember of the manners and customs of that ancient race?—
3. When did Julius Caesar first land, and how long was it before he came again?—
4. What Roman Emperor made himself master of the island A.D. 43? Relate the story of Boadicea.—
5. What chief held out the longest against the Romans, and what became of him?—
6. What Roman did most to civilise this country? Relate some of the things he did.—
7. How many walls were built by the Romans, and at what dates?—
8. Who is said to have been the first martyr in this country? and what town commemorates the scene of his death?—
9. When did the Roman power over the land begin to decline?—
10. Who were the Picts and Scots? and why did they invade the south at this time?—
11. From whom did the invaded people ask assistance?

CHAPTER II.

THE INVASION OF THE ANGLES AND SAXONS.

THE people whose history we have been telling so far were not English. Whence, then, and how did the English people come here? That is what we are now to learn. If you look on the map of Europe you will see, just to the south of Denmark, a place called Angeln. This is part of the ancient home of our fathers. They were very different from the English of these days, although some of their ways remind us of our own. Indeed these people were to us what a child is to the grown man, and we are going in this book to see how the English grew from childhood to manhood.

You must fancy for yourselves this little country of Angeln, with the flat lands that bordered on it, and the men who lived there. Some of them were called Angles, some Saxons, and some Jutes, though they all spoke very much the same tongue. Their land would seem to you very wild; for you must not imagine there were any large towns, railways, houses, and shops, such as we have; all these things have grown up by degrees. Instead there were woods and forests in which dwelt herds of deer and cattle, lonely lakes, damp moors and fens, where men hunted wild fowl, and which they fancied full of elves, goblins, and other wonderful beings.

There were among these tribes three classes of men—the nobles, the free, and the unfree, or slaves. Their ancient home. Manners and customs.

The freeman would build for himself a little house,

and round it enclose a piece of land. Here he lived in peace with his wife and children, while his slaves reaped his corn, tilled his ground, and fed his cattle.

The slaves as well had homes of their own, and round their dwellings also was a portion of land; this land, however, did not belong to them, but to the lord who owned them. Often the slaves were not unkindly treated; but at times the master, in a fit of passion, might strike and kill one. When this happened the lord was not called to account for his deed, nor could the family of the slave get justice done.

But the freeman had other duties besides those to his own family and household; he had duties to the people around him, to his village and tribe. For as each house had a plot of ground round it, so each village was bordered with forests and waste ground, and had besides a portion of land which belonged to all the freemen equally. Some of this land was used for growing corn and some for grass; and it might be tilled by all alike, as it belonged to the whole body of freemen, and not to any one in particular.

But besides the freemen and the slaves who worked for them, there was a class of a higher rank, some of whom were thought to be the children of the gods, and others who had won renown as leaders in war. These were the nobles.

Still men need other things besides homes to live in, and land on which to grow their food; they need also what we call law and order. They must have some one to govern them, to punish those who do wrong, and to protect the weak from violence. Thus it was that the freemen of each village met together at certain fixed times to make laws for themselves, and choose men to whom they gave the rule in time of war. Besides the little meetings in each village, there were large meetings of the whole tribe, held at the new or the full moon. To these meetings the freemen came, and discussed everything which might concern the tribe—whether, for instance, they should have war or peace.



When all were present the priests ordered silence, and then some great chief or noble began to speak. If his hearers agreed with what he said, they would shake their spears; if they disagreed, they would make loud shouts; but when very much pleased they would strike their spears and shields together.

When a war was decided on with another tribe, the whole people took up arms; but they had their chosen leaders, and these leaders had bands of men trained for war, whose glory was in fighting.

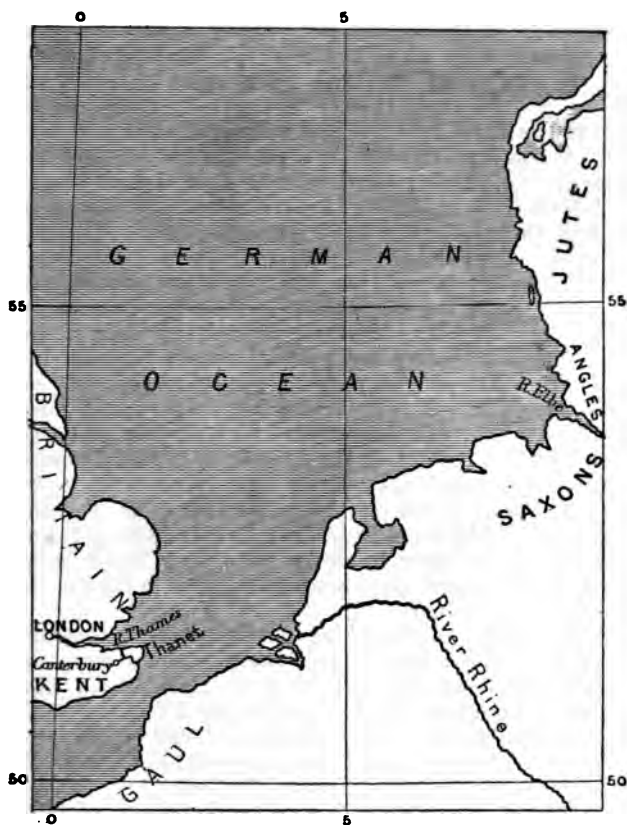
When a man broke a law, stole, or killed another, he was punished, but very seldom put to death. Generally the man who did the injury had to pay a fine to the family of the man he had wronged.

The god these people chiefly worshipped was called Woden, or the war god, and they believed that he would help them in their battles. They fancied, too, that there was a god Thor, who knew all about the storms, and a beautiful goddess Frea, who caused the sun to shine and the fruit to grow; while one god, Tiw, brought death to all who met him. Each day in the week was called by the name of some god or goddess. Thus, one day was called Thor's day, or Thursday, another Frea's day, or Friday, and this is how we get the names of our days of the week.

Besides these gods, the Angles and Saxons believed in fairies and in water-spirits and all sorts of strange beings that are now only read about in story-books.

We do not know why the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes left their old homes in Angeln, and came to Britain. But at the time when the Romans invited to help the Britons. left the Britons to themselves, with no one to help them against the Picts and Scots, these sturdy tribes from the low, flat shores about the Elbe were in the habit of sending their ships to prowl around the coasts of Britain. And so it happened, as mentioned in the previous chapter, that the

449. Britons turned for aid to these tribes, and asked for their help. In answer, it is said, a number of Jutish warriors in three ships,



led by two chiefs, whose names were Hengist and Horsa, came to the shores of Kent, and landed A.D. 449.

But no sooner had they done what the Britons asked them, and beaten the Picts, than they began to quarrel with the Britons, and *after a good deal of fighting*, took Kent for

themselves, and killed nearly all the people who were living there.

Some years after, in A.D. 477, a band of Saxons, under Ella and Cissa, came over. They

settled in the district we call Sussex, which took its name from the South Saxons.

Cerdic and Cynric were the leaders of the next band, and they settled in the west, and were called the West Saxons. They are said to have had a hard struggle before they conquered the Britons.

The exact date of the settlement of the East Saxons in Essex is unknown; but the kingdom of Northumbria, that is the land north of the Humber, was founded by Ida, in 547. By degrees the Angles took all the northern part of Britain. When you see how large a portion of land this is, you will not wonder that Britain came to be called the land of the Angles, or in other words, Angle-land, or England.

The Angles and Saxons had no kings in Angeln, but when they came to Britain they found it better to choose some great leader to be their ruler; and each settlement grew in time to be called a kingdom.

The chief of these kingdoms were Kent, the earliest founded; Wessex, which afterwards conquered all the rest; East Anglia, the land of the East Angles, founded by Uffa, A.D. 575; Northumbria, the land north of the Humber, founded by Ida, A.D. 547; and Mercia, the land of the men of the March, or border, founded by Cridda.

The Britons were not conquered without a great deal of fighting, but by degrees they were driven away from the middle to the west of the country, retaining the parts we call Wales and Cornwall, and the kingdoms of Strathclyde and Cumbria, which stretched over Galloway, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire.

As the tongue spoken by the Britons sounded strange

in the ears of the Angles and Saxons, they called them Welsh, which was the name the English always gave to foreigners.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>1. What was the origin of the English race? and what were the names of the tribes who lived in Angeln and the surrounding lands?—2. What do you know about the mode of life of these tribes?—3. Give the names of some of their gods and goddesses, and explain how the memory of them is preserved by us.—4. Give the names of the different</p> | <p>chiefs who came to Britain, and the dates of their landing.—5. In what way did the Angles and Saxons alter their government after they came to Britain?—6. What were the names of the chief Saxon kingdoms?—7. What parts of this country did the Britons retain?—8. What name did the Angles and Saxons give to the Britons? and why?</p> |
|--|---|

CHAPTER III.

CONVERSION OF THE ENGLISH TO CHRISTIANITY.

IT was not only the fighting men who came over to conquer Britain. They brought with them their wives and children, leaving the land behind them lonely and deserted. They brought, too, their manners and customs, and their faith in Woden and Thor. They threw down the British churches, killed the priests, and took their lands and houses for themselves. Then the different families built new houses, which they surrounded, as they had done in Angeln, with a quick-set hedge or *tun*. From this the little settlements came to be called towns, or afterwards townships; and all small matters of public business the townships settled at their meetings.

Angles and
Saxons in
their new
homes.

Besides the smaller meetings the nobles and priests held their own assemblies generally twice in the year. These were called the Witenagemót, or meeting of the Wise Men. In this assembly the King was chosen; for although there was but one royal family in each kingdom, the crown did not descend then, as now, regularly from the father to his eldest son; and should a king die while his children were too young to reign, his brother or cousin, with the consent of the Witenagemót, might take his place. The "Wise Men" also settled how the land should be divided. A certain share might be held by particular families, but all the rest was the common property of the people, and called Folkland.

Election
of kings.

From this Folkland, however, portions were often *taken to be given* to the nobles or great men, and

whatever was so taken was written down in a book, and called Bookland. So when you are in the country and see some large park with deer and cattle peacefully feeding in the shade, and are told that it belongs to a noble family, you may know that this family can show, by certain writings they possess called title-deeds, that they have a right to this land, and that therefore it is "Bookland." And if you run about on Hampstead Heath, or any other common which belongs to all alike, remember that is what remains to us of the old "Folkland."

There were still three classes of men among the Angles and Saxons: the nobles, to whom belonged the King's own followers and soldiers, as well as the great earls; next the freemen who had land; and, thirdly, the slaves who had none, but were obliged to do as their masters told them. They also continued their old faith for a time, until their heathen state attracted the pity of the Christians in Rome, who sent missionaries to persuade them to a better life.

It seems that Gregory, a famous bishop, was one day walking in the streets of Rome, and passed through the slave-market, where the Romans sold living people in the same way that we do food and clothing. Amongst the slaves for sale he noticed a group of handsome boys, whose fair faces, blue eyes, and flaxen curls were a pleasing contrast to the swarthy features of southern climes. He was struck with their beauty, and stopping, he asked, "Where do these boys come from? are they Christians or heathens?" He was then told that they came from the island of Britain, and had never heard of Christ. "Alas!" he said, "that with such fair faces they should belong to the Prince of Darkness! What are they called?" "Angles," was the reply. "Angles!" said Gregory; "not Angles, but Angels, if they were Christians; and they shall be made fellow-heirs of the angels in heaven." Years after Gregory was made Pope. The bishops of Rome were called

popes, from the Latin word *papa*, which means father, and they believed themselves to be fathers of the whole Christian Church. Gregory, then, when he became Pope, made up his mind to send some men to the Isle of Britain to win the fair-haired English people to the faith of Christ.

Now an idea had arisen among Christians that the clergy ought not to marry; and as those times were rather rough and unsettled, many men and women, who wanted to lead quiet lives, took vows to remain single and devote themselves to the service of God and to doing good. The men who did this were called monks, and the women nuns; and they used to live in large houses called monasteries and convents, shut out from the world, acting according to certain fixed rules, and obeying the man or woman who was placed at their head.

Gregory, therefore, sent to Britain a band of forty of these monks under the guidance of a priest, whose name was Augustine. They landed at the Isle of Thanet, A.D. 597, and news of their coming was sent to Ethelbert, King of Kent. Ethelbert had married a Christian lady named Bertha, and may, therefore,

Mission-
aries to
England.
597.

Augustine
in Kent.

have been more willing to use the Roman monks well. He bade his people treat them kindly, and said that they were to come and see him. He received them whilst he sat among his nobles in the open air. After hearing their message he said that "their words were fair, but of doubtful meaning, and he could not at once leave the gods whom he had served so long." Still he allowed

Conver-
sion of
Kent.
598.

them to remain on his land, and as they went towards the town of Canterbury they sang, "Turn from this city, O Lord, thine anger and wrath, turn it from thy holy house, for we have sinned." A year passed before Ethelbert became a Christian; but when he did so, many of his subjects followed his example, and were baptized.

The king reigning in Northumbria at this time was named *Eadwine* or Edwin, and his people,

long after he was dead, thought of him as one of their best kings. He is said to have set up beautiful fountains of brass on the high-road; and he built, far north, a town which he called ^{Edwin of Northumbria.} after his own name, Edwin's burgh, or Edinburgh. Edwin wished to marry the daughter of Ethelbert. She, of course, was a Christian, and she would not go away among the ^{Mission of Paulinus.} heathen people of Northumbria unless she could take with her one of the monks who had come to Britain with Augustine. This monk's name was Paulinus, and the people of the north were much struck with his pale face, his dark hair, and the grave dignity of his bearing. But Penda, King of Mercia, still believed in the old gods, and hated the new faith; so he made war against Edwin, and killed him in battle at Hatfield (in ^{633.} Yorkshire), A.D. 633. After this Northumbria fell into great distress; the queen, with her children and the monk Paulinus, fled away to Kent, and no one would have been left to carry on their work if some good men from Ireland had not come to take their place.

There is on the west of Scotland a little island called Iona. An Irish missionary, whose ^{St. Columba.} name was Columba, had built there a large monastery, in which Oswald, a young Northumbrian prince, sought shelter.

After Edwin's death Oswald became King of Northumbria. He was a Christian, and wished that his people also should hold the faith of Christ. So he thought of those who had helped him when he was in trouble, and asked them to send him ^{St. Aidan.} some one to preach to his people. The man who went was called Aidan, and he took up his abode in Lindisfarne, or Holy Island. Here also a monastery was built, and many went from thence not only to the Northumbrians, but to the heathen Mercians. Thus the English people were taught the Christian faith, some by Roman and some by Irish missionaries.

But, perhaps, the greatest man among the ear'y English Christians was Bæda, or, as he is some-

times called, the Venerable Bede. He was born about A.D. 672, and was only a little boy of seven when he was first sent to school at Jarrow, near the mouth of the Tyne.

The
Venerable
Bede.
672.

He soon showed that he was very fond of learning; and as there were more books at Jarrow than anywhere else in the land, he was able to study a great deal. In after life he taught what he had learnt to other people. He never left his home at Jarrow, for he did not care to go among the fierce men who were for ever at war, and he loved nothing so well as reading, writing, and teaching. He wrote a great many books, but the one most read now is a history of the English Church; and indeed it is from this book we learn all about Augustine and the other men who first spoke to the Angles and Saxons about Christ.

Besides all this, Bede was the first to put into English words any part of the Bible. An English poet, named Caedmon, had indeed already told the Bible history in English verse. But Bede translated the Gospel of St. John word for word. One of his pupils tells us that he was busy with this work when he died. He had been ill for a long time, and one day the young man who had been writing for him told him his book was quite finished except the last few words. "Then write them quickly," said Bede. Soon after this the young man said, "Now it is finished." "Yes, you say truly," returned Bede. Then he bade his scholar support him and let him kneel on the spot where he had been used to pray; and so we are told he died, saying, "Glory be to the Father, and to the Son, and to the Holy Ghost."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Explain the meaning of the word *township*.—2. What was the *Witanagemót*?—3. In what way did the crown descend?—4. Explain the difference between *Folkland* and *Bookland*.—5. Relate the story of Gregory and the English boys.—6. Where and at what date did Augustine land? and how were these early missionaries received?—7. Tell all you can concerning the Northumbrian King converted by Paulinus.—8. What missionaries had a hand in the conversion of the English?—9. What do you know of the Venerable Bede?

CHAPTER IV.

THE EARLY ENGLISH KINGS.

THE kingdoms founded by the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes have been called the *heptarchy*, which means seven kingdoms. This, however, is not a very good name, because there were not at all times exactly seven; and as the different kings were always at war with each other, sometimes one was master and sometimes another.

By degrees there came to be three large kingdoms—Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex—on which the small ones depended. At first ^{Rise of Mercia.} Northumbria was the strongest of the ^{685.} three, but in the year 685 its king, Egfrith, and all his nobles were killed in battle against the Picts; after which Northumbria was never so great as it had been before, and Mercia began to take its place.

The greatest king who ever reigned in Mercia was called Offa, and his reign lasted from 758 ^{Offa.} to 796. He fought a great deal against ^{758—} the people of Kent and Wessex, and also ^{796.} against the Welsh. Before his time the Welsh had been able to keep for themselves all the land as far as the river Severn, but he took a good deal of this country away from them. To preserve his new possessions he made a wall or dyke, ^{Offa's Dyke.} which went from the mouth of the Wye to the mouth of the Dee. Part of this dyke still remains, and is called Offa's dyke. It became the boundary between England and Wales.

Offa also made friends with Charles the Great, King of the Franks and Lombards, the people who

lived in the countries we now call France and Germany. Charles did so much for his people that they called him Charles the Great, or Charlemagne. He was one of the most famous men of that time.

Charles and Offa were at first very friendly, but after a time their friendship cooled, and Charles gave shelter in his kingdom to several people who had been conquered by Offa, and who had fled across the sea for safety. Among them was a prince of Wessex, whose name was Egberht, or Egbert, and for thirteen years he remained with Charles, who protected him against his enemies.

Offa died in 796, and after a time Egbert came home to his own land, and was chosen King of Wessex in 802. Egbert must have learnt a good deal from Charles, and he soon showed that he wanted to extend his power as Charles had done. First, he took Kent, Sussex, and Essex, and joined them on to Wessex. Then he conquered Mercia, and at last marched right up into Northumbria and made himself lord over the people there. Thus Egbert was lord over all the kings in England.

Egbert, however, had other things to do besides conquering the kings round him; for in his reign some new enemies came over to England and began to fight with the people. These were the Danes. Danes or Northmen; they came from Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, and were rough wild men, very like what the Angles and Saxons had been before they learnt the religion of Christ. They were still heathens, and worshipped Thor and Woden and all the old gods. When they first came they fought very fiercely and killed a great many of the English people, just as the Angles and Saxons had killed the Britons.

But they did not do so much harm to the English as the Angles and Saxons had done to the Ancient Britons, because they were more nearly related to them.

Although in the end the Danes conquered England,

they did not do so all at once. At first they came only as robbers; they landed, took all they could lay their hands on, and then went away again. But after a time they began to settle and to take part of the land for their own. In the reign, however, of the great King Egbert they did not do much harm, for he beat them in a great battle at Hengestesdun (836), and after he died his son Ethelwulf went on with the war and won another battle over them at the mouth of the Parret (847).

Battle of
Henges-
tesdun.
836.

Ethelwulf.
847—
858.

Ethelwulf died A.D. 858, and left four sons, whose names were Ethelbald, Ethelbert, Ethelred, and Alfred.* They all reigned one after another; but there is nothing of importance to relate of any of them except the youngest, Alfred.

Let us bear in mind, then, that there were three kingdoms which had the most power among the Angles and Saxons; that at first Northumbria took the lead; that in the time of Offa Mercia was the strongest; but that from Egbert's days the Kings of Wessex were lords over the whole of England.

* The Saxons wrote these names thus:—Æthelwulf, Æthelbald, Æthelberht, Æthelred, and Ælfred.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What is the meaning of *Hep-tarchy*? Why is it an incorrect name?—2. Which early English kingdoms gained the most power?—3. Until what date did the power of Northumbria last?—4. What great king reigned over Mercia? Relate the chief facts of his reign.—5. What kingdoms did Egbert add to his own? What people began to in-
- vade Britain during his reign, and from whence did they come?—6. Give the date of the battle of Hengestesdun. With whom was it fought?—7. What kings immediately succeeded Egbert?—8. What great facts must be borne in mind with regard to the early history of the English kingdoms?

CHAPTER V.

THE REIGN OF ALFRED THE GREAT. 871—901.

ALFRED, who is called Alfred the Great, because he did so much to improve his people, was born at Wantage, in Berkshire, A.D. 849. Alfred's childhood and youth. When he was a little boy of four years old his father sent him to Rome, and Leo IV., who was Pope at that time, is said to have made him his godson. Two years later Alfred's father went himself to Rome, and most likely brought his little boy back with him.

Alfred was twenty years of age when he married a lady called Ealswitha or Alswitha. It is said that on his wedding day he was taken so ill that he could not enjoy the feast made to do honour to him and his bride. But his disease was a strange one, of such a nature that no one was able to find out what was the matter with him.

Before Alfred was made king he had to help his brother Ethelred to fight against the Danes, who still kept coming to England and often doing very cruel things. Wars against the Danes. For instance, in A.D. 863, they went into East Anglia, and having taken Edmund, the king of that district, prisoner, they tied him to a tree and shot him to death with arrows. Edmund the Martyr. As Edmund was a Christian and the Danes were heathen, he was thought to be a martyr, and called St. Edmund. Many years after the Abbey of St. Edmundsbury was built over his grave.

Alfred and his brother Ethelred fought several battles with the Danes, most of them in the year 871.

There is a story told that, in a battle at Ashdown, Ethelred was praying in his tent, when the Danes came down upon his soldiers, who called on him to come out and help them. Ethelred replied that he "must serve God first, and man after," and waited until his prayers were done. But Alfred, although left alone, was far too brave to run away, and bidding his men keep close together, he rushed upon the Danes and killed five of their great earls, so that when his brother had finished his prayers and came out of his tent he found the battle almost over and victory ready to his hands.

In the same year, 871, Ethelred died, and Alfred was chosen king. After some more fighting the Danes, whom Alfred had beaten many times, swore to leave Wessex in peace. Alfred believed their word and had sent his soldiers home, when back came his faithless foes once more and began to rob and plunder everywhere. Alfred was so taken by surprise that he was obliged to escape, with a few men who loved and trusted him, to a little island in the marshes of the river Parret. But he still kept his eye on the Danes, and at last, calling the men of Somerset together, he marched through Wiltshire, and beat them in a battle at Edington, 878. Their leader, whose name was Guthorm, promised to become a Christian, and to call himself in future Guthorm Athelstan. It was also agreed that the Danes should have all the land north of Watling Street, and Alfred that to the south. Watling Street was a Roman road, made all across England, and leading from Dover, through Canterbury and London, to Chester; some of it still exists. The short street called by that name in the City of London is a remnant of it. This peace was called the Peace of Wedmore, because Wedmore was the name of the place at which it was settled.

After this, Alfred had no more fighting for a long

time, but he proved to be as good a king in peace as in war. These are some of the things he did. He caused many of the laws which former kings had made to be written down; some of them he improved, and to them he added the Ten Commandments.

Alfred's
care for the
English.

Alfred learnt many of the old English songs by heart; and because he found very few of his people who knew how to read, he ordered that every child should be sent to school and remain there until he was able to do so. He also set up a school for the young nobles, and looked after it himself. Then, as there were scarcely any books written in English at that time, he translated some from other tongues, and added to them many things which he thought it would be good for them to know.

But in 895 the Danes began to trouble him again, and Alfred had rather a hard time of it until his death in 901.

Fresh
inroads of
the Danes.

895—
901.

During the later wars Alfred built a new kind of ship, which was of more use in war than those which had been used before, and he was so successful at sea that many people date from his reign the beginning of England's fame as a maritime power.

Alfred was buried at Winchester; and because he had done so much good the people were very fond of telling stories and writing songs about him. Thus it was said that on one occasion when he was hiding amongst the marshes of the Parret he found refuge in the hut of a peasant who did not know him. The peasant's wife set him to watch some bread that was baking on the hearth: for in such a poor hut there was no oven. Meanwhile the good woman went out to her work in the field. But King Alfred was soon lost in thought about the misery of his kingdom, and took no notice of the bread, which was burned almost to a cinder. When the good woman came back she was very angry, for she could ill afford such a loss, and she rated her visitor soundly as a lazy vagabond. The King took it very good-

naturedly, for indeed he knew he was in fault, and ought to mind well the humblest work which he undertook. But when the peasant woman afterwards found out how great he was, she was terrified to remember her rough words. However, the King only laughed, and the good wife lost nothing by her freedom of speech.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. When and where was Alfred the Great born? What do we know of his early history?—2. From what incident in the Danish wars did the Abbey of St. Edmundsbury get its name?—3. What great events happened in 877?—4. How far did	Watling Street extend? Where do any portions of this road still exist?—5. Relate some of the ways in which Alfred tried to improve his subjects.—6. In what year did Alfred die? and where was he buried?—7. Do you know any story told of him?
---	---

CHAPTER VI.

THE KINGS OF WESSEX, FROM ALFRED TO ETHELRED. 901—979.

ALFRED had five children, two sons and three daughters, but the most famous of them were Alfred's children. his son Eadward, or as we say, Edward, and his daughter Æthelflaed or Ethelfleda.

Edward was chosen king after his father's death, but Ethelfleda and her husband ruled under him over Mercia, Ethelfleda being called the The Lady of Mercia. Lady of the Mercians. She must have been a very brave woman, for she beat the Danes several times; she also built a number of fortresses along the line where the Danes were likely to come. These were at Bridgenorth, Tamworth, Warwick, Hereford, and other places.

Ethelfleda did not live long after her father's death; and when she died her brother Edward took her lands for his own. Then he went on to take by force from the Danes many of the places they had won from the

English, and had just seized Manchester when the people of the north, the Scots, and the Britons of Strathclyde, chose him, it is said, for their "Father and Lord." By this they meant that if Edward would help and defend them against their enemies, they, in return, would

Edward the Elder. 901—925. honour him as their king, and hold their lands under him. This is the chief thing to remember about Edward's reign, because when, many years after, another Edward made war against Scotland, he gave *this as his excuse.*

Edward, who was called Edward the Elder, to distinguish him from the Edwards who came after, died in 925, and his son Athelstan was chosen king in his stead. One story tells us that Athelstan's grandfather, Alfred, was very fond of him, and, when he was a little boy, gave him a purple cloak, a belt covered with gems, and a sword with a fine gold scabbard.

Soon after Athelstan was made king, the Danes again began to be troublesome. The people of the North also grew tired of being subject to the English, and joined with the men of Cumberland against them. Then when a Danish king called Anlaf came sailing up the Humber with his ships, the Scots all went to welcome him and join with him against King Athelstan. But Athelstan was a brave man, and with his brother Edward marched against the Danes and won a great victory over them in 937. The story of the battle was made into a song, and is called the "Song of the Battle of Brunanburgh."

Athelstan died in 940, at Gloucester, and was buried in the Abbey at Malmesbury. The wise men chose his brother Edmund to be king after him. Athelstan had never had any wife of his own, but he married his sisters to several foreign princes, and this gave him more to do with other countries than any of the kings who had gone before him.

Edmund (Eadmund) had to begin all the fighting over again; the whole of his reign was spent in wars with the Danes, but he only reigned six years, for he was murdered in 946 by a robber named Liofa.

The next king was named Edred (Eadred.) He was very weak in health, but, happily for him, he had a great man to help him in his work, and this man's name was Dunstan. Many very silly tales have been told about Dunstan, and they have become so mixed up with his real history that it is rather hard to know what is

Athelstan.

925—

940.

Battle of

Brunan-

burgh.

937.

Edmund.

940—

946.

Edred.

946—

955.

quite true. But it is sufficiently clear that he was a great statesman.

Dunstan was born at Glastonbury, and his father was a noble named Hoerstan. He was sent to school at the Abbey at Glastonbury, and in the library there were a great many books, which the boy read and studied eagerly. The fame of his learning reached the ears of the King, who sent for him to court. But the King's courtiers grew jealous of Dunstan, and one day, in anger, dragged him from his horse to the ground, and trampled him down in the dirt. Dunstan was very much hurt, and a fever came on. When he got well again he made up his mind to be a priest. Still he went on learning, and grew very clever at music, painting, and working in metals. Both Althelstan and Edmund took a good deal of notice of Dunstan, and in 943 he was made Abbot of Glastonbury. Edred also took Dunstan's advice in many things, and to him the good fortune of the King in beating his enemies is thought to be due. Edred died in 955, and his nephew Edwy (Eadwig) was made king.

Edwy was very young when he began to reign, and before long he had a quarrel with Dunstan. It is rather hard to know how it came about, but it is said that Edwy married a fair lady named Elgiva (or Ælfgifu), and some of the priests thought he ought not to have done so because she was very nearly related to him, and this was against the laws of the Church.

One story says that when Edwy was crowned king, and was feasting with his nobles, as the custom then was, he suddenly rose from the table and left his guests to amuse themselves while he talked with his wife and his wife's mother in another room. Dunstan rather roughly sent the young king back to do his duty, at which Edwy was so angry that Dunstan was obliged to leave England.

This may be a true story, but another reason that made the King and many of the people angry with Dunstan was, that he wanted to alter some things in the Church, and to make the clergy more strict than they had been before.

Dunstan's
reforms.

He compelled many of the priests and monks to give up having wives and children, and to live unmarried, because he thought they would thus be able to bestow more time on their work, and lead more holy lives.

In some things, however, Dunstan's influence had been more valuable than his enemies supposed, and whilst he was away the people got on very badly. Edwy was younger in sense and experience than in years, and offended many of his subjects. At length, in 957, the Mercians had a meeting, and chose his brother, Edgar (Eadgar), to be king instead of him, and sent for Dunstan to come back again. After this, Odo, the Archbishop of Canterbury, persuaded Edwy to give up his wife and send her away, and the next year the King died. Some people thought the Queen Elgiva had been murdered, but no one was really sure what had become of her.

As soon as Edwy was dead, his brother Edgar became King over all England. He was only sixteen years old, but he was very brave and clever. He was called Edgar the Peaceful, because there was no fighting in the land while he was king. But this was not because he was less stern than the kings who had reigned before him, for he could punish very severely those who did wrong.

Edgar.
958-
975.

Edgar is said to have made many good laws, and to have built a number of churches and monasteries, so that after he was dead his people looked back on his reign as one of the happiest times this country had known. He died in 975, when only thirty-two, and was buried at Glastonbury.

Edgar had been married twice; the name of his

first wife was Ethelfleda, and of his second Elfrida. Ethelfleda and Elfrida each had a son. Ethelfleda's son was named Edward, and Elfrida's Ethelred.

As Edward was the elder, he was chosen king before his brother, and began to reign in Edward. 975. But in 978 he was murdered, and the 978. people were not sure who had done the deed; many believed it was Elfrida herself, because she wished her son to be king. It is said that one morning, when the young king stopped to rest at Corfe Castle where his stepmother was living, she went out to meet him and kissed him, and gave him a cup of wine to drink. While he was drinking it she bade one of her servants stab him in his back. This was done, and the King fell down dead. Because he died in this way he was called Edward the Martyr.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. By whom was Alfred the Great succeeded?—2. What towns did Ethelfleda fortify?—3. What people "chose Edward to be Father and Lord" in 924? Explain what this meant.—4. When and by whom was the battle of Brunanburgh fought?—5. Who was chosen King after Athelstane, and how long did he reign?—6. What great man helped Edred to govern? and what do you remember about him?—7. What is said to have caused his banishment in the next reign? Did he do anything to give real offence among the people?—8. Give the names of Edgar's sons, and relate the story of the death of one of them.

CHAPTER VII.

THE DANISH CONQUEST. 979—1016.

ETHELRED (or Æthelred), who was chosen king after the death of his brother, was one of the worst kings who ever lived in England. He was cruel and cowardly, and did so many foolish things that people called him Ethelred the Unready, that is, a man without "rede" or counsel. Ethelred II.
(the Un-
ready).
979—
1016.

We have seen how the Danes first came over to England, stole as much as they could from the people, and went away again—how after a time they began to settle in the land and make homes for themselves. Now we are to learn how they came to conquer the whole country, and take it for their own.

It was in 980 that the Danes again began to trouble England. They landed first at Southampton and did a great deal of mischief; then, finding how weak the country was, they fitted out a number of ships, and in 981 sent them under Justin and Guthorm, two brothers, and another Dane named Olaf, to England. The invaders first went to Ipswich, and then on to Maldon, but here Brihtnoth, a great English noble, marched to fight against them. Brihtnoth,
the East
Saxon.
981.

It is said that as Brihtnoth passed by, Ramsey, the abbot, asked him to take some dinner. "I cannot fight without my men, so I will not dine without them," was his reply, and then he marched on to Ely, where the monks showed great kindness both to him and his soldiers; and he promised that if he fell in battle he would leave

them some of his lands. In return he wished to be buried in their church. For fourteen days he fought the Danes, but at last he was overcome at Maldon by their great numbers, and died fighting bravely. The Danes cut off his head and carried it to Denmark, but the monks of Ely found his body and buried it in their church, as he had desired, while his wife Ethelfleda worked with her needle a beautiful picture of his deeds.

But there were not many men as brave as Brihtnoth in those days; and after the great battle of Maldon things grew worse and worse, until at last the foolish thought came into the minds of King Ethelred and the Archbishop of Canterbury of paying the Danes a sum of money to go away, instead of fighting against them. This was not only a very disgraceful and cowardly thing to do, but the King had much trouble to get the money; so he made all his people pay him a certain amount, and this he gave to the Danes. As this tax was paid to the Danes it was called *Danegeld*, or Dane-money. The Danes made many promises to Ethelred not to trouble him again; but as soon as they had spent the money he had given them they returned to try and get some more.

The next Dane that came to England was named Swegen, or Sweyn; he landed in 994. In 1002 Ethelred married Emma, the sister of the Duke of Normandy. This marriage had a great influence on the after history of England.

The Normans were of the same race as the Danes or Northmen, who had given so much trouble to the English. They had settled in Gaul, 913. The leader at that time of these Normans was called Rolf Ganger, and the province, which afterwards bore the name of Normandy, was given to him by the King of the West Franks, on condition that he and his men should live there quietly as Christian folk, and not harry and disturb other men's lands. This province was therefore

called by the Franks the land of the Northmen. Rolf's children were Dukes. By degrees the word Northman became Norman, and the land of the Northmen Normandy.

As yet Ethelred had shown himself to be more foolish than wicked, but not long after he proved that he could be both. On St. Brice's ^{Massacre of the Danes, St. Brice's Day.} Day, when the Danes were entirely off their guard, Ethelred ordered his men to fall on and kill as many as they could. ^{1002.}

Gunhilda, the sister of Swegen, was among the people who were murdered, and it is said she herself saw her husband and child killed before she fell into the enemies' hands. She died threatening a sure and speedy vengeance on English treachery. Swegen and the Danes, when they heard of it, were, of course, very angry, and Swegen swore to take a terrible revenge on Ethelred. ^{Swegen's vengeance} For four years, beginning 1003, he waged ^{1003-1007.} the fiercest war with England, burning and killing everywhere, until at last Ethelred got a little peace by paying more money.

But when Swegen found the country so much weakened by Ethelred's unwise government, he began to think of making it a Danish kingdom. Several years, however, passed before he succeeded in this. In 1011 one of Swegen's great soldiers, Earl Thurkill, took the city of Canterbury; and those of the inhabitants who were not killed had to pay a ransom, or else were sold into slavery. The Archbishop at that time was Ælfheah (or Alphege). He offered to pay a ransom, and was carried away towards London by the Danes, while his servants tried to get the money. But the people on his estates were already ruined by the war; and it is said that when he thought of this he repented of his promise, and told the Danes he would give them nothing. In their anger the rude soldiers set him up as a mark, and pelted him with the bones left from their dinner. When these were finished they threw stones at him, and at last one

of them ended his life with a blow from an axe. This is supposed to have taken place at Greenwich, where the parish church is called by the name of St. Alphege.

In 1013 Swegen himself came back again, and this time he set to work to take all England for himself. He went through the land waging the fiercest warfare, and acting more cruelly than he had ever done before, until Ethelred in despair sent his wife and two boys, Edward and Alfred, over to Duke Richard in Normandy. Shortly afterwards he went himself, leaving England to the tender mercies of Swegen, who now was king of all the land.

Swegen, however, did not live very long, and at his death, 1014, there was a division among the people; for the Danes chose Canute (Cnut), Swegen's son, to reign over them, and the English sent for Ethelred and begged him to come back to them again, promising that they would always obey him as their rightful king if only he would try to rule over them better. So Ethelred returned, bringing with him his brave young son, Eadmund, or Edmund Ironside, as men called him on account of his strength. But Ethelred the Unready could never do well, and things went on just as miserably as before, until in 1016 he died, and Edmund became king in his stead.

All the time that Edmund was king, which was only a few months, we hear only of fierce war between him and Canute, until at last the two kings agreed that they would divide the kingdom between them as Alfred had done before. They met at Olney, an island on the Severn. There they made peace, and promised to live like brothers henceforward. Edmund took Wessex, Essex, and East Anglia, and Canute had Northumberland and Mercia. They put on each other's clothes and shook hands on the matter, and Canute agreed that Edmund should be considered the first king in the land.

It seemed now as if all would go on better, but only a few months later Edmund died ; and as the children he left were very young, the people thought they might as well let Canute the Dane reign over all the land, and so the Wise Men chose him to be king.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What was the character of Ethelred, and how did it affect the welfare of his people ?—2. Describe the battle of Malden and give its date.—3. What lady did Ethelred marry ?—4. How did the country she came from get its name ?—5. For what purpose was the tax called *Danegeld* levied ?—6. What cruel deed was done in 1002 ? By whose orders ? and what lady fell a victim ?—7. Give an account of Alphege, Archbishop of Canterbury.—8. What Danish King at last overcame Ethelred ? Did he reign long ?—9. Who was Edmund Ironside ? In what way did he and Canute divide England ?

CHAPTER VIII.

THE DANISH KINGS. 1017—1042.

FOR twenty-five years after the death of Edmund Ironside the land was wholly under Danish kings. There were three of them, and the first was called Canute the Great. He began his reign by acting in a very savage way towards the old English royal family; but after a time he showed a better disposition, and did his best to rule well.

In order that he might govern England more easily, he divided it into four parts, called earldoms, and set a great noble or earl over each part. Northumbria made one earldom, East Anglia another, Mercia one, and Wessex one.

Canu'te.
1017—
1035.

His division
of the
kingdom.

It is important to remember the names of two of his earls, although they were not made earls until some time after he came to the throne. They were called Leofric and Godwin. Leofric was Earl of the Mercians, and Godwin of the West Saxons.

Canute married Emma, Ethelred's widow, and they had two children, Hardicanute (Harthacnut) and Gunhilda.

Emma's two other sons, Edward and Alfred, were left in Normandy to be brought up. In 1018 Canute sent his fleet home, having first made the English give him a large sum of money with which to pay the sailors. Very likely the English felt this rather hard on them, but in most respects Canute proved himself a good ruler.

Canute went in 1027 to Rome, and when he was

there he wrote a letter and sent it home to his people. He told them of all the fine sights he had seen, and how he meant when he came home again to do better than he had ever done before. He also bade his nobles and the rich men to do justice to the poor while he was away.

After his return the land remained at peace for many years, and we only hear of one attempt at war being made during his reign. This was when the Duke of the Normans tried to land in England. Duke Richard, the brother of Queen Emma, was dead; but his son, Robert the Magnificent, thought one of the sons of Ethelred ought to be King of England instead of Canute, and that with an army he could enforce their claim. Robert's ships did not succeed in landing, for the wind blew so strongly against them that they only got as far as Jersey.

A little further on we shall read how the Normans came again to this country and did not fail.

Canute was a Christian and very fond of the monks, who, in their turn, loved after he was dead to tell tales about his good deeds. Once, they say, that when he was on his way to Ely to keep a feast day, he heard some monks singing; and their voices charmed him so much that he made a song about them and sang it himself. This is the first verse:—

“Merrily sang the monks within Ely,
As Canute the King rowed thereby:
Row boatmen near the land
And hear we these monks sing.”

Another anecdote told to his honour was the well-known story of his rebuke to his flatterers. It is related that he had a seat placed for him on the shore as the tide was rising; and then, as though pretending to believe the foolish things said of his power, he commanded the waves to stay their advance and not dare to wet his royal feet. But of course the waves took no more notice of him than if he had

been a slave, and the spray was soon dashed upon his kingly robes. Then said he, "See what mockery it is to talk of the power of kings! There is no true king but One, the Lord of heaven and earth."

Canute died at Shaftesbury, 1035, and was buried at Winchester. He left three sons. The two eldest were by a wife named Elgiva (or Ælgifu), and were called Swegen and Harold. The youngest was Hardicanute (Harthacnut), the child of Emma.

Harthacnut
and Harold.
1035—
1042.

As soon as their father was dead, these three men began to quarrel as to which of them should be king.

Swegen never came to the English throne, but contented himself with taking Norway, while Harold became King of Denmark. In England, however, some of the people wanted Harold to reign, some Hardicanute. So at last it was decided that Harold should be king north of the Thames, and Hardicanute south.

Hardicanute, however, did not come to England, and left Earl Godwin to govern in his stead.

It was during this time that Alfred, the son of Ethelred, came over from Normandy to England, perhaps to try if he could get back his father's kingdom. He had only been in this country a little while when Harold's men seized him, killed his servants, and took him to Ely, where, after putting out his eyes, they cruelly murdered him.

The English were very angry; some said that Earl Godwin had helped to do this deed, but it was never proved against him.

Harold himself did not live long after this, and Hardicanute proved to be as great a savage as his brother. He dug up the dead Harold from his grave, and flung his body into a fen; he also made the English give him a large sum of money for the Danes.

Then when the English rose against his soldiers, or hus-carls, at Worcester, he sent the two Earls, Leofric and Godwin, with some others, to burn the town down to the ground. But these men were

kinder than their king, for although Worcester was destroyed, they let the people within get away, and very few of them were killed.

At last, in 1042, Hardicanute died as he stood drinking at the wedding-feast of one of his nobles, and the line of Danish kings came to an end.

End of the
Danish rule.
1042.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. In what way was England divided by Canute after he came to the throne? Give the names of two of his earls.—2. Whom did Canute marry? How many children had he, and what were their names?—3. Relate some stories told of Canute.—4. Where did he go in 1027? Show that he did not forget his own people during his absence.—5. Why did Robert the Magnificent attempt to | invade England?—6. Give the date of Canute's death. In what way were his dominions divided between his sons?—7. What was the fate of Ethelred's son Alfred? and who was suspected of having helped in this deed?—8. How did Hardicanute act towards the people?—9. In what year did the Danish line of kings come to an end? |
|---|--|

CHAPTER IX.

THE REIGN OF EDWARD THE CONFESSOR.

1042—1066.

THE English people were by this time tired of Danish kings, and began to long for an Englishman to reign over them.

Then the great Godwin reminded them of Edward, the son of Ethelred and Emma, who had been for so long in Normandy; and though some people wanted to have another man for king, Godwin prevailed, and the Wise Men chose Edward.

Edward was a fair man with light hair, and a long beard which swept over his breast. He was English in looks, but in every other respect he was Norman. He had lived so long in Normandy that he had grown to love the Normans, and to think of them as his best and dearest friends; and as soon as he became king it was seen that his great wish was to do all he could for them, and give as many good places to them as it was possible for him to give to strangers.

Edward was not very well fitted to be a king. He was fond of going to church, and of saying his prayers, and of gathering together all kinds of curious things which he fancied had belonged to saints in former days, and which were called relics. He cared more for these things than for doing the common business of life. Perhaps it would have been well for him if he had understood better the words of St. Paul, who tells us to be "diligent in business" as well as "fervent in spirit."

Edward's
Norman
training.

His
character.

As Edward was very easily led, it is not to be wondered at that Earl Godwin soon gained much power over him, and he and his ^{Earl} family in a short time became the greatest ^{Godwin.} people in England.

Godwin had married a wife called Gytha. They had only one daughter, Edith, and six sons, Swegen, Harold, Tostig, Leofwin, Gurth, and Wolfnoth. Edith was very beautiful; and as the young men were all strong, clever, and brave, it is no wonder that Godwin was proud of them and tried to gain for them places of honour. Edith was married to the King; and both Swegen and Harold had earldoms given to them. Swegen was brave, but rash and hot-tempered, and instead of trying to control himself he thought only of his own pleasure, and this led him into great sin and misery.

About this time the Abbess of Leominster, in Herefordshire, was a lady famed for her beauty. Swegen saw and loved this lady, and persuaded her to break her vow, leave her ^{Swegen,} nuns, and run away with him. Then he ^{son of} tried to marry her, but this was against the law, and all the people cried out against him. At this Swegen was very angry, and ^{Godwin.} leaving his earldom he went away to Denmark; and King Edward gave part of his lands to his brother Harold, and part to his cousin Beorn.

After a time Swegen thought, perhaps, he might be forgiven; and he returned to England, and asked the King if he would take him back and give him his earldom again. But when Harold and Beorn heard this they said they did not want to give up Swegen's lands; so Edward told him he would not have him back, and he returned to his ships hurt and vexed at the disappointment.

At this time Harold and Beorn were on the sea-coast watching some Danish ships which they thought were anxious to land. Swegen ^{Murder of} saw them, and his mind was so mad with ^{Beorn.} hate against his cousin that he laid a trap to kill him.

First he pretended that he wanted to make friends, and asked his cousin to speak a good word for him to the King. Beorn, all in good faith, said he would; and Swegen proposed that they should sail together to Sandwich. But as soon as they had taken ship Swegen made Beorn his prisoner, took him to Exmouth, there killed him, and then fled away to Flanders.

When the King heard of this he was very angry, and so were all the nobles; and the Wise Men when they met said Swegen was a "nithing," which meant a worthless fellow, and forbade him to come back to England any more. The next year, however, one of the bishops persuaded King Edward to let him return.

Meanwhile the King was growing more and more fond of having Normans about him, and at last he gave so many English titles away to them that his own people grew jealous of them and began to rebel.

In 1051, while they were in this mood, the King's brother-in-law, Count Eustace, came over to England, and when he had got all he could from him was going home again.

When he came to Dover, he and his followers went to the house of one of the inhabitants of the town, and asked to be allowed to lodge there. The owner of the house, however, refused; but Eustace and his men forced their way in and killed him on his own hearth. At this all Dover was in terror, and a fight took place between Count Eustace's followers and the men of the town. The Count and his men were beaten, and going to the King, told him a long story about the way they had been ill-used by the English.

The King was very angry when he heard about it, and told Earl Godwin to punish the men of Dover for their treatment of Count Eustace. But Earl Godwin replied that he would not have the men on his earldom punished without first inquiring into their guilt. So the King called together all his Norman friends as well

Swegen outlawed and restored.

Count Eustace and the men of Dover.
1051.

Godwin defends his people.

as Leofric, Earl of the Mercians, and others of his great nobles, while Earl Godwin gathered round him his sons Swegen and Harold, with all their men; and both parties met at Gloucester with two great armies.

Earl Godwin then asked the King for justice against the Normans; but the King refused to give it. On this the two armies were very anxious to begin and fight; but as this was not at all the wish of Earl Godwin, it was agreed that the dispute should be tried before the Witenagemót in London.

When the Wise Men met, they did not show any favour towards Earl Godwin, but brought up again the sin of Swegen, which the King had pardoned; and in the end they declared ^{Godwin} all Godwin's family outlawed. ^{outlawed.} They gave them only five days in which to leave the country; so all the family of Godwin had to hasten out of England. Godwin and his wife, with Swegen, Tostig, and Gurth, went to Bruges; but Harold and Leofwin went to Ireland, and they stayed away for the whole winter.

The King in the meantime thought this a good opportunity for having over several more of his favourite Normans, and amongst them came his cousin William.

William was the Duke of Normandy. ^{William} His father's name was Robert, and he had ^{Duke of} been Duke before him; but his mother was ^{Normandy.} ¹⁰²⁷⁻ only a poor peasant girl called Herleva. ^{1087.}

When William was a little boy his father had gone, like many other people, to Jerusalem; but before he set out he made his nobles promise that his boy William should be Duke after him if he died. Robert never came back; but many of the nobles forgot their promises, and when William was grown up he had to fight against some of them in order to keep for himself the lands his father had left him. He was a brave, clever man with a very strong will, and was soon able to conquer all his enemies.

^{His early}
^{struggles.}

It may have been whilst William was paying this visit to King Edward, in 1052, that he first thought what a grand thing it would be to become King of England; and he always said that Edward promised to leave England to him when he died. If Edward did promise this, it was certainly very wrong and foolish, for the English kingdom was not his to give away in this manner.

In 1052, Earl Godwin and his sons grew more anxious to return home, and as the King refused to have them back they thought they would try on their own account. Of course the Normans did not want them, but most of the English were very glad to see them once more, and they had not much difficulty in landing.

One of the bishops, named Stigand, then persuaded the King again to try Godwin's cause before the Wise Men. This time Earl Godwin spoke for himself, and said that he and his sons had done no wrong to any man. The Wise Men listened to all that he had to say, and gave him and his sons leave to return; so they all received back their earldoms, while their enemies, the Normans, were sent away out of the land. Swegen, it is said, never came home any more, but went to Jerusalem, where he died.

The next year when Earl Godwin was sitting at dinner with the King he dropped from his seat in a fit, and was carried away and died in a few days. His son Harold became Earl of the West Saxons after him.

Harold was wiser than his brothers, and seems to have understood, better than his father had done, how to manage the feeble king. He was tall and very handsome, and knew well how to fight, for he was one of the strongest men of his time. The English people liked him so much that they began to think, as Edward had no children, Harold might, at his death, make them a very good king. For in some wars he had with the Welsh about this time Harold showed himself to be a very

able leader of men. The only other person who could be chosen King was Edward, the son of Edmund Ironside, whom Canute had sent out of England. In 1057 he returned with his son, a boy called Edgar. But this Prince Edward died soon after, and as the English then never thought of choosing a child for their ruler, all men felt pretty certain that Harold would reign over them after King Edward, who was drawing near his end.

While these things were being talked over, Harold was sailing in the English Channel for pleasure, when a great storm overtook him, and he was wrecked on the coast of France. He ^{Harold a prisoner in Normandy.} was made prisoner by Guy, Count of Ponthieu, who refused to set him free unless a large sum of money were paid as ransom.

Harold sent for aid to William of Normandy, the cousin of King Edward, and he soon made Guy release his prisoner, after which he asked Harold to pay him a visit. William made ^{Released by William.} him welcome, took him out hunting with him, and in fact treated him very kindly. For William wanted to get England after Edward's death, and he used to say afterwards that Harold had solemnly promised to help him to do so, and to marry his daughter.

When Harold at last came back to England events happened which helped in the end to cause his ruin. His brother Tostig was Earl of Northumberland,* and a great favourite ^{Tostig and the Northumbrians.} with the King. Tostig, like his brother ^{1065.} Swegen, was rash and passionate, and was not liked by the people in his earldom. Indeed, he did not treat them very fairly, and they complained that he had unjustly killed some of their nobles. So the Northumbrians declared he should be their Earl no longer, but chose in his place another man, Morcar (Morkere), grandson of Earl Leofric. The discontented people got together a great army and

* This name must be understood in the same sense as Northumbria, the old kingdom of that name, not the later county.

marched to Northampton. Here they were met by Harold, who said that the King had sent to tell the people to remain quiet until he could hear their complaints. They then asked Harold to take a message from them to the King. To this Harold agreed, and on his return to the King tried all he could to make things better for his brother. Afterwards he met the Northumbrians at Oxford, and begged them to take Tostig back; but to this they would not listen, and Tostig was driven out of the country.

Now, although Harold had done everything he could for him, Tostig never could be brought to believe that his brother had not helped through jealousy to cause his ruin. Thus he cherished in his heart a vengeful feeling against Harold.

This dispute troubled the King very much, and soon afterwards he fell ill and died, January 5th, 1066. He had once made a vow to go to

Death of
Edward
the Con-
fessor.
1066.

Jerusalem to pray at the Holy Sepulchre; but he was not able to spare the time, so instead he built a church to St. Peter at Westminster. A monastery had long before

been erected there by Seabert, the first of the East Saxon Kings who turned from heathenism to Christianity. This monastery was called

West-
minster
Abbey.
1066.

the West Minster, and the name came to be applied to the neighbourhood around. The Church of Edward the Confessor was after-

wards altered and added to by many kings, until at length Westminster Abbey became the glorious building which stands in our day.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Whose son was Edward the Confessor?—2. Describe his appearance and character.—3. Give the names of the different members of Godwin's family. Relate the story of Swegen's crime.—4. In what way did King Edward offend his English subjects?—5. What led to the trial and outlawry of Godwin and his sons?—6. Who came to see Edward during Godwin's absence?—7. When did Earl Godwin die? Why did the English think of choosing Harold as their King?—8. What other claimants were there to the throne?—9. What happened to Harold while he was sailing in the English Channel, and what events resulted therefrom?—10. What gave rise to Tostig's suspicious feelings towards Harold?—11. When did King Edward die, and where was he buried?—12. Give an account of the founding of Westminster Abbey.

CHAPTER X.

THE REIGN OF HAROLD II. JAN. 6—OCT. 14, 1066.

ON the death of King Edward it was decided that Harold should be king, and very few complained of his election. Harold's birth gave him no claim whatever to the crown. But the Witenagemót thought the country had need of a strong man in such a time, and, therefore, they chose him. But in entirely setting aside the old royal family they exercised a very unusual freedom of choice. William of Normandy was very angry when he heard Harold was made king, and sent over a message asking him to remember how Edward had promised that England should one day be his, and how Harold himself had sworn to help him to get it, and also to marry his daughter. William's birth gave him no more right to the throne of England than Harold had. His great aunt Emma was the mother of Edward the Confessor, but such a connection could not give him any claim. Still he contended that the Witenagemót were bound to choose him because Edward had promised to make him successor to the throne. He also said that Harold, having broken a promise made on oath, could not be king over a Christian land, and he sent to the Pope to ask him to condemn the election. All such arguments, however, would have been of no use if William had not been a mighty warrior. He is, therefore, well called William *the Conqueror*, because his claim to rule rested on conquest and on nothing else. The Witenagemót, indeed, afterwards elected him,

but they did so because they could not help themselves.

To William's message Harold returned answer that he alone was the rightful King of England, for the Wise Men had chosen him, and that it was not in his power to marry a foreign wife without the consent of his people.

Then William gathered together all the Normans who would help him, and got ready a number of ships in order to invade England. The Pope returned a favourable answer to his appeal, and sent him a beautiful banner that he himself had blessed, and bade him god-speed.

Norman
prepara-
tions.

When Harold heard that William was getting ready to come over to England, he gathered together a great army, and set men to watch the coast and prevent the Normans landing. He himself went to the south of England with his soldiers, and there waited all the summer months. But when winter came he was obliged to let some of his men go to their homes, for William had not come, and many of them had grown tired of waiting, and provisions began to fail.

Watch of
the English.

But now another enemy came to trouble Harold: this was his brother Tostig. Tostig was still very angry with Harold because he thought that it was through him he had lost his earldom. Moreover, he said that he had always been King Edward's favourite, and had, therefore, as much right to be chosen king as his brother. At first he had asked William of Normandy to help him, but William, as we have seen, was looking after his own interests; therefore, instead, he got aid from Harold Hardrada, the King of Norway.

Norse
invasion
of North-
umbria.

This king and Tostig went together to make war against England. At York they were met by the two grandsons of Earl Leofric, Edwin and Morcar, who had a hard fight with them, but Tostig and Harold Hardrada gained the victory.

The news of this battle was quickly taken to King

Harold, who was in the south of England ; and he, with all possible haste, marched to Northumberland and met his brother and Harold Hardrada at Stamford Bridge by the Derwent. Here there was a great and terrible struggle. King Harold and his men fought with all their might, and in the end gained the battle ; Tostig and Harold Hardrada were both slain. This happened on the 25th of September.

Battle of
Stamford
Bridge.

1066.

On the 29th of September, while King Harold was still in Northumberland, William of Normandy landed at Pevensey ; and as all the soldiers had gone to fight against Tostig, he was able to land with little danger or difficulty. When William leaped from his boat to the shore he stumbled and fell. His followers, who were superstitious, thought this a bad sign. But William, knowing how they would feel, grasped a handful of sand, and shouted, "See, I have taken seisin of my kingdom."* Thus with ready wit he turned the bad sign into a good one.

Norman
invasion.

While Harold was still at York men came to him at full speed and in great terror, to tell him that William of Normandy had come over to England, and was robbing and burning throughout the country. Harold, without any time to rest after his last great battles, had to hasten back again to the south of England, calling to his aid, as he went, the men from the different earldoms. All of them were glad to obey, except Edwin and Morcar with their men, for they, like Tostig, were jealous of King Harold. At London he stayed a few days to get his army ready ; and here, some say, he met his young brother Gurth, who begged him to let him go and fight the Normans in his stead. Harold, of course, would not allow this, and went on again, taking his brothers Gurth and Leofwin with him, and on he marched until he

* In handing over land to a purchaser, a turf or clod used to be given. And the buyer was then said to have seized—taken *seisin* of the land.

reached Senlac,* near Hastings, where he pitched his camp.

On the morning of Saturday, October 14th, Duke William of Normandy rose early, and spoke to his men, telling them he had come to take the throne of England away from Harold, because it belonged by right to him. Then he marched with his army to Mount Telham, and looked over to Senlac, where Harold and his men were. They were gathered behind a trench; on their right lay a large piece of marshy ground, and on their left waved the standard of the King, the Golden Dragon, with Harold's *hus-carls*, or body-guard, protecting it. Covering the rest of the ground, stood numbers of men whom Harold had called to his aid from the different counties. Against these people came William with his Norman knights; and his minstrel, Taillfer, sang, as he rode along, tossing his sword into the air, a song about a brave hero who had lived long before.

When the battle was joined, the English, with cries of "God Almighty!" and "Holy Cross!" dashed against the Normans, and it seemed as if they must carry all before them. Once the great Duke William was thrown to the ground, and his men were about to give up all for lost, in the fear that he was dead, when he sprang up, and tearing off his helmet, cried aloud, "I live; and by God's help will yet conquer!" Then he rushed at the standard, striking fiercely right and left.

In the meantime Harold's brothers, Gurth and Leofwin, had both been slain; and William now made a desperate effort to gain the spot where the King still stood his ground. But nothing moved King Harold. He remained firm, surrounded by his *hus-carls*. William then ordered his Normans to make believe that they were frightened and to run away. They obeyed, and the Saxons moved from their good position and began to chase their foes. At this the Normans turned to fight the Saxons hand

* Now called Battle.

and. But as long as Harold was alive the battle went on. At last Duke William thought if his soldiers aimed their arrows up in air, they might fall on the Saxons' s, and so destroy them. This plan quite succeeded. An arrow pierced Harold in the eye, and his fall the Normans gained the day.

Death of
Harold.

The English were so completely beaten that they did not rally anywhere. Edith, the widowed queen of Edward the Confessor, held the city of Winchester. But on the approach of William she surrendered it. Edwin, Earl of

Defeat of
the Eng-
lish.

Northumbria, and Morcar, Earl of Northumberland, had a large force in London; and they were inclined to support the claims of Edgar the Ætheling (or Prince), grandson of Edmund Ironside. Nothing shows William's ability better than the plan by which he frustrated their design. If he had laid siege to London, his army would probably have been worn out while time would have been given for other Englishmen to gather to the rescue. But he was too quick for that. He marched up the south bank of the Thames, setting Southwark on fire as he went by. He crossed the river at Wallingford, and, turning northward into Hertfordshire, he got between the great earls and their dominions, on which they chiefly depended for help. This frightened them, and they hastily fled from London to protect their own lands. Thus left to themselves the citizens had no choice but to surrender, and the conquest of England was practically accomplished.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Explain the different grounds on which Harold and William laid claim to the throne.—2. With what difficulties did Harold meet in defending his kingdom against William.—3. Who invaded the North of England at this time, and by

whom were they opposed?—4. What battle was fought, and with what result?—5. What news did Harold hear after his victory?—6. Describe the battle of Hastings.—7. How did William show his wisdom after the battle?

PART II.

FROM THE NORMAN CONQUEST TO THE REIGN OF HENRY VII.

1066—1485.

CHAPTER XI.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR. 1066—1087.

THUS William the Conqueror got his own way, and took the land of England from the Saxon kings. It seemed to the sturdy English of the time a very hard thing; but this trouble did good in the end, for it brought into the country a noble and energetic race of men, distinguished by splendid capacities, and so nearly related to the English themselves as to be capable of close union with them. The Normans carried with them not only their valour and high spirit, but the higher civilisation of France. And when they became completely united with the English, they did much to ennoble the nation.

The old English writers tell us that William was stern and hard of nature, caring little whether he were loved or not. He was light-haired and fair of face, but so strong that no man could bend his bow, while his voice rang out loud as a trumpet above the noise of battle when he fought at Hastings. He was so fond of hunting and careful of preserving animals to hunt that people used to say he "loved the wild deer as if he had been their

Character
of William.

father," and his stern sentence on poachers was "That whosoever should slay hart or hind, man should blind him."

But William was something more than a good soldier and huntsman, he was one of the greatest of England's rulers. The same writer who tells us that he was a "stern and wrathful man," and allowed no one to resist his will, adds that, "he was mild to those good men who loved God," and "made such order in the land that a man might travel through it unharmed with a bosom full of gold."

Although William had won in battle, the English were in no hurry to make him king. Indeed while Edwin and Morcar were in London the citizens elected Edgar the Ætheling in ^{His election as} Harold's place. But after the great earls ^{king.} had departed, Edgar himself went at the head of a number of Londoners to offer William submission, and to say they would take him for their king. So he marched to London with his ^{1066.} army, and there the people set the crown upon his head at Christmas, 1066.

At first William was not at all unkind to the English, but let them keep to their own laws, and only gave to his men the land which either belonged to no one, or of which the owners were dead or in disgrace. But before long he altered his plans. This change began after he had paid a visit to his own Normandy. When he went there he left England under two very harsh rulers, his brother Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, and William Fitz-Osbern, who made the English hate the Normans so much that they rose up against them and tried to drive them out of the land. William hearing of this revolt came back, and, with the help of his army, got ^{Danish} the better of the people for a time. But ^{invasion.} ^{1069.} they now had no love for him, and when, in 1069, the King of the Danes came over to the North with a great army, the English began to hope that all might yet go as they wished.

But they hoped in vain. William swore a great

oath that he would make Northumberland suffer, and marching thither he soon did as he had sworn. The land before he came was full of pretty villages and fields of corn, or green with grass for feeding cattle. William was not moved to pity by the sight, but in his anger burned all the farmhouses, tore up the trees and crops, and after he had killed nearly all the people who lived there, left the rest to wander about with no homes to dwell in and no food to eat. This was William's way of showing that he was indeed the Conqueror of England.

William's
vengeance.

Then he began to make other changes. He took away the churches from the English clergy and put Norman priests into them. He made the English nobles, who had large parks and fields which had belonged to them for many years, give up their lands to him, that he might bestow them upon whom he pleased; and he forced all who received any land from him to swear that they would always fight his battles and would never fail to do as he ordered. To prevent secret gatherings after dark he commanded that at eight o'clock every night a bell should ring, and when the people heard this bell the fires and lights in every house were to be put out. This bell was called the "Curfew" bell, from two French words which mean to "cover fire."

Norman
priests
and
nobles.

The curfew.

William, indeed, meant that no one in England should be independent of his will; and this made even his own men angry, so that in the year 1075, while he was away from home, some of his nobles met together and agreed to rebel against William, and assert their independence of his power.

Norman
discontent.

One of the men who had known of this plan was an Englishman, Waltheof, whom the Conqueror had made Earl of Northumberland. This man's wife was Judith, a daughter of the King, and she betrayed the plans of the rebels. An outbreak took place, which was soon put down, and the only man put to

death on account of it was Waltheof, who had taken no active part in it. The others were imprisoned for life.

In 1085 William did another thing which was looked on with great distrust by the people. He was anxious to learn a great deal about England and the English people; so he sent men into every shire and asked of the priests and sheriffs and others who were at the head of affairs what the land was like, and how much it was worth. These men had to bring him an account of every village, wood, and field, and the number of cows, horses, and even ploughs, that there were on every farm; how many windmills and ponds there were; indeed, they had to tell him about everything they saw. He afterwards had all these facts written down in a book which was called the Domesday Book. This book still exists, and is of very great value as showing the state of England at that time.

William, in order to indulge his love of hunting, laid waste a large part of Hampshire and called it the New Forest. He made a law that any man who was found shooting the animals there should have his eyes put out.

Towards the end of his reign William had a good deal of trouble, for he quarrelled with the King of France, and his own son Robert made war against him because he would not give him Normandy and Maine. He also lost his wife, Matilda, whom he loved very dearly.

In 1087 William was much offended by a rude speech which the King of France made about him, and in return went into his country, burning the houses and killing the people with very little pity. He had set his soldiers to destroy Nantes, and while he was looking on at their cruel work, his horse stepped on a burning ember and threw him forward on the saddle, hurting him very much. He was taken away and tended, but he quickly grew worse, and in a few days he died. When he was dying he ordered all the

Domesday
Book.
1085.

New
Forest.

Death of
William.
1087.

people whom he had taken prisoners to be set free.

We often hear it said that William the Conqueror brought the "Feudal System" into England, and young readers may wonder what it means. We will first explain the meaning of the term, and then show that the statement is not quite correct.

In the first place, the word "feudal" comes from *feudum*, which was a name for a fief or fee, that is, a piece of land for which the man to whom it belonged was obliged to do service to some one above him. In the feudal system, therefore, every one, from the highest noble down to the very poorest man who had any land of his own, was bound to his superior by the closest ties. The nobles held their lands from the King, and were compelled on that account to serve him in time of war, while he on his part was obliged to protect them. Beneath the nobles were their tenants; and these classes were bound together in the same way as were the King and his nobles.

There were, of course, good and bad points about this system, but it never really grew up to perfection in England, and for this we may thank William and the Norman conquest. In other lands where it reached its height, the nobles had greater power over their own followers than even the King himself had, and thus there were many masters instead of only one. William had felt this when he was only Duke of the Normans, and, to keep his nobles from getting too much influence, he made all his subjects swear to be faithful to him as well as to their lords. This was a great blow to the feudal system. It had gradually been growing up in England before William's time, without anybody taking much notice of it. But when a number of people from another land conquered this country, it is not to be wondered at that the English should have struggled against the very thing to which they might have submitted from their native rulers.

The feudal system.

Difference between English and French feudalism.

One fact more must be here mentioned, and that is, that in this reign the English Church became much more influenced by the Pope of Rome than it had been before; because the bishops and clergy whom William put in the place of the English were generally foreigners, and more strict in their obedience to the Pope than the Saxons had been. The Archbishopric of Canterbury was made superior in dignity to that of York, and Lanfranc, the Archbishop, began the custom of holding courts of law for the trial of churchmen separate from those used for common people, while clergymen were forbidden for the future ever to marry. These changes did not do much harm so long as William reigned; for though he used the power of the Pope for his own purposes, he had no notion of surrendering his independence. He refused to do homage to the Pope, and allowed no church council to make laws without his consent. He also forbade any person to receive letters of command from the Pope without submitting them to the King.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. How did the Norman Conquest do good in the end? Describe the character of William the Conqueror. How did he at first treat the English?—2. Name the rulers under whom England was left during William's first visit to Normandy. What effect did their conduct have on the English people? Describe William's treatment of Northumbria.—3. What changes did William make in the Church, and in the distribution of the land? What was the Curfew Bell?—4. Give an account of the conspiracy formed against William in 1075. Who was put to death for having taken part in it?—5. What was the Domesday Book? When was the New Forest laid out? What sort of laws were made by William against hunting wild animals?—6. With whom did William make war during the last years of his reign? What accident caused his death? Give the date of it, and name the town in France where he was buried.—7. Explain what is meant by the *Feudal System*, and show how it never grew up to completeness in this country?—8. What alteration was made in the government of the Church during William's reign? What measures did William use in order to oppose the power of the Pope?

CHAPTER XII.

WILLIAM II., SURNAMED RUFUS, OR THE RED.

1087—1100.

WHEN William the Conqueror was dying, he was asked how his lands were to be divided; and he made reply that he wished Robert, his eldest son to have Normandy and reign as Duke of the Normans; William his second son to be King of England; while to Henry, his youngest, he left a large sum of money, telling him at the same time to wait and see what would happen to him.

Division of
William's
dominions.

This second William was called "William Rufus," or the Red King, on account of his having rosy cheeks and red hair, the word *rufus* being the Latin for red. As soon as his father was dead, he made haste over to England to be crowned, and won the hearts of the English people by telling them how good a king he meant to be, and what just laws he would give them; also by making gifts to the churches and to the poor.

Promises of
William II.

However, the English people soon found they were worse off under this king than they had been under his father; for although William the Conqueror was very fierce in war and made some hard laws, he was never cruel except for some great object of policy, and seldom put any one to death or shed blood except in battle. William Rufus, on the other hand, was a selfish man, who cared for no one, and whose only desire was to indulge his own wishes and get as much money out of the people as he possibly could.

When William the Conqueror died, Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury, refused to crown William Rufus, unless he promised to rule justly. This William was quite ready to do, for he was afraid of Lanfranc; and this fear kept him from doing much harm during the Archbishop's lifetime. But Lanfranc died in 1089, and then William threw off all restraint.

He made a great friend of a clerk named Ranulf Flambard, and with his help found many ways of getting money unjustly from the English. For instance, when a bishop or clergyman died, he would not put any one in his place who did not pay him a large sum of money, and sometimes he would keep the churches empty for a very long time. In such cases the revenues of the bishopric or of the church came to the King. Again, if one of his men died, he would not let the son take any of his father's lands for his own unless he first gave the King an unreasonable sum of money, so much sometimes that there was none left for his own use; also, he never allowed any of the daughters of his men to marry without his consent, while for this consent he made them pay very heavily; and then he often wedded them to husbands they did not love, just for his will and pleasure. He made the people also pay the old tax of Danegeld, which Ethelred had begun, and for which, of course, there was now no need.

In the year 1093 William fell ill and thought he was going to die; so, wishing to make amends for the past, he said that if he lived he would become a better king. Feeling sorry for having neglected to put any one in the dead Lanfranc's place, he thought of the very best man he knew, and asked him to come and be Archbishop of Canterbury. This man's name was Anselm, Prior of Bec, in Normandy. But, kind and gentle as he had often shown himself to be, he was a man with a high sense of duty. He cared nothing for the selfish king, nor wished for

Death of
Lanfranc.
1089.

The
King's
tyranny.

William's
illness and
repentance.
1093.

power himself. He had almost to be forced into the King's presence, and it was some time before he could be persuaded to say he would become Archbishop. He suspected that when William recovered he would be no better than before.

In this he was right, for William was not really changed at all, and when he was no longer in fear of death, began to behave as badly to Anselm as to the rest, and ordered him to pay him £1,000. This Anselm refused to do. "Treat me as a free man," he said, "and I devote myself and all I have to your service, but if you treat me as a slave you shall have neither me nor mine." Still the King would not do as Anselm wished, and they disputed over many things. At last the Archbishop, rather than submit to William, left England, and did not again return till after the King's death.

It is not necessary to relate all the wars that William had with the people round. He fought against the King of Scotland and his own two brothers, Robert and Henry. Indeed, he was envious of Robert, and wished to have Normandy for himself; so he was very glad when, in 1096, Robert, who wanted to make a journey to the Holy Land, told him he was willing to let him have the government of his duchy for five years if he gave him a sum of money for it. But the great men who lived in the countries round Normandy did not like the change, and began to make war on William's land.

William was in England at the time, but when he heard the news he got into the first boat he could find, that he might cross over to France and fight against his enemies. Then when he was told a storm was coming on and that he might be in danger, he exclaimed, "Kings never drown!" William, however, soon after came to a strange and sudden end.

He was told one day that if he went to shoot in the New Forest some evil would befall him; but he

did not heed the warning and went there as he was wont to do. Not long after some poor men found him lying on the ground dead, with an arrow in his heart. Some said that a gentleman called Walter Tyrrel had shot him by mistake, others believed that he had been slain by some one of the many people whose hatred he had roused by his cruelty and injustice.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>1. What directions did William I. make in his will as to the division of his dominions after his death? Why was the second William surnamed Rufus, and in what way did his character differ from his father's? —2. After whose death did William's bad qualities show themselves? With whose aid did he get money from the people? Describe their various methods of exaction.</p> | <p>—3. What caused William to appoint Anselm Archbishop of Canterbury? Why was the latter opposed to accepting this office? Relate the conduct of the King and bishop.—4. How did William get possession of Normandy? To whom was his rule displeasing? Give his words when he heard of the revolt in Normandy.—5. Relate how William Rufus came by his death.</p> |
|---|--|

CHAPTER XIII.

HENRY I., SURNAMED BEAUCLERK, OR FINE SCHOLAR.

1100—1135.

AS soon as William Rufus was dead his brother Henry, who at the time was also hunting in the New Forest, rode off to Winchester that he might get himself made King. He knew that his brother Robert, who was older than he, might say that England was his by right; but Robert was away in the Holy Land, and the English cared very little about him.

Probably the people remembered the promises William Rufus made when he began to reign, but Henry did better than make promises, for he immediately set about undoing some of the mischief his brother had done.

First of all, he put in prison Ranulf Flambard, the evil adviser of William Rufus, then he sent for Anselm to come back to England, and began to appoint clergymen to all the churches that William had left empty. And he not only promised to be-
Henry's
Charter. have justly to the people, but he had these promises written down and signed by himself and his nobles. This writing was called a Charter, from the Latin word *charta*, meaning a paper. As we go on in history, we shall read how each of the kings gave a charter to his people until we come to what is called the Great Charter in the reign of King John.

Another of Henry's actions which pleased his people very much was his marriage to a princess of English blood, whose name was Edith, but whom

the Normans called Matilda, or Maud. Her mother was Margaret, sister of Edgar the Ætheling, and her father was Malcolm, King of Scotland. We are told that this lady had Edith Matilda of Scotland. been brought up by her aunt in a convent, and had been forced by her to take the veil, that is to promise never to marry. But the girl told Anselm that the promise had been made against her will; and that she had often and often torn off and trampled under foot the veil which she had been made to wear. When Anselm heard this he said that she was free; and when Matilda was crowned Queen, the English people gave a great shout of joy.

And here we must explain why Henry's brother Robert had gone to the Holy Land. We know how fond people are of visiting places where those they loved have once lived, and of tending the graves of friends they have lost. This The Crusades. is very natural; and after Christ's disciples were all dead, the people who had learnt from and known them when on earth loved to visit all those places where they had walked and talked. At first people went to the Holy Land because they liked to go, but by-and-by they began to fancy that they were doing something very holy, and that the prayers they repeated at the graves of the Apostles were better than those they prayed elsewhere. They also imagined that if they could get hold of something which had once belonged to any of the old saints or martyrs, whatever it might be, it would do them great good, and perhaps when they died help them to get to heaven. At last they grew to believe that every one who went to the Holy Land and knelt down and said prayers at the tomb in which they thought that Christ had once lain, would have a great many sins forgiven, and scarcely be punished for them at all. These ideas made many of the people anxious to go to the Holy Land; but the Turks, who had conquered Palestine, did not believe in Christ, and often used to ill-treat the people who came to see the places where He once lived.

This was a great trouble to many people, and at last a man, called Peter the Hermit, seeing how many unkind things the Turks did to the Christians when they went to Jerusalem, how they would rush in and disturb them with howls and yells whilst they were saying their prayers, thought he would try and do something to make matters better. So he wrote a letter to the Pope, telling him what he had seen, and asking him if all the Christian people ought not to unite and turn the Turks out of the Holy Land. The Pope quite agreed with all that Peter had said, and called a number of the clergy and other people together. Then he and Peter talked to them, and told them many things about the cruelty of the Turks, until they made them feel so angry that all of them cried out with a loud voice, "God wills it; God wills it," and determined to go in one body and drive the Turks away from the Holy Land.

Such a war was called a "crusade," from *cruz*, a cross, because the soldiers all wore crosses in token of their devotion to Christ. Robert, Duke of Normandy, and several of the princes of Europe headed this expedition; but before they started a number of men, women, and children gathered together, and, led by Peter the Hermit, began their journey towards Jerusalem. Many of these people were very ignorant, and had not taken enough to eat on their way, so that some died of hunger, while it is said few got even as far as Constantinople, and those who reached Asia Minor were killed by the Turks. The other crusaders fared better, for they conquered Antioch and took Jerusalem. This crusade

Robert,
Duke of
Normandy.

had the effect of keeping Robert, William the Conqueror's eldest son, away from home so long that Henry was able during his absence to make himself quite sure of the crown of England.

In 1101 Robert returned, and crossed over to this country to fight against his brother. But the English people did not wish to have him for their king,

and it was only a few of the nobles who liked him better than they did Henry. So the two brothers took Anselm's advice, and made peace with each other for a time.

But before very long they quarrelled again, and Henry gained a victory over Robert, 1106, at a place called Tenchebray, in Normandy, and imprisoned him for the rest of his life in Cardiff Castle.

Henry tried, like his father, to increase his kingly power; and in order to prevent his nobles, who were very proud and disobedient, from getting too strong for him to manage, he took away the lands of many, and raised up new men in their stead; but to these he gave less money, and kept them more under his own control.

Henry had two children, a boy named William, and a girl called Matilda. William was, so Henry thought, to be King of England after he himself was dead, and he was very proud of his son. In 1120, when William was seventeen, he was crossing over from France to England in a ship called the *White Ship*, with a number of young men, and they thought that as they

Increase of
the King's
power.

The *White
Ship*.
1120.

were having a holiday they would enjoy themselves as much as possible. So they ate and made merry, and drank more wine than was good for them. Whilst they were in the midst of their frolic the ship struck against a rock, and in a few minutes filled with water and sank to the bottom of the sea. William, they say, tried to save himself from drowning by getting into a boat, and would have succeeded if he had not gone back to rescue a half sister, the Countess of Perche, who cried to him for help. Out of all the people in the *White Ship* only one reached the shore alive. The following day the news of the wreck was brought to the King, and his grief at the event was very great. It was not merely that his only son was drowned, but it made him very angry to think that Robert's son, whom he hated, might become King

Matilda
recognised
as succe-
sor to the
throne.

after him. In order to prevent this he made all his lords swear that when he was dead they would make his daughter Matilda their Queen.

Still his last days were full of anxiety, for he could not feel at all sure of these promises being kept; and on December 1st, 1135, he died quite suddenly. His death is said to have been hastened by his having made too large a meal off small fish called lampreys.

Henry's death. 1135. Henry's reign had been a very busy one, and he had many enemies. Some of the most troublesome were the Welsh, who had not as yet been subdued by the Normans. William the Conqueror had formed two earldoms, Shrewsbury and Chester, on the northern border of Wales; but the Norman Earls he placed there were always at war with the Welsh, and gave the kings constant trouble. At last Henry thought of a plan of settling a number of Flemings in Wales, as he knew that these people could not only fight well, but would be able to teach the Welsh how to weave cloth as well as till the ground. This had the desired effect, for though the Welsh still often made war on the English, the Flemings helped to keep them in order, and proved in the end very useful to the country.

Henry also had a dispute with Anselm, which arose in the following manner. The English kings always wished to have the affairs of the Church under their own control, and to choose for themselves the bishops and abbots. They wished besides that these bishops and abbots, when chosen, should do them homage and become their vassals, as did their other subjects. It was also thought important that the bishops should receive from the King the ring and the staff, which were the signs of their office. The giving of the ring and staff was called "investiture," and Anselm thought that he ought to receive them from the Pope and not from Henry; so he refused to do homage to the King, or consecrate

Henry and the Church.

Dispute as to investiture.

those bishops who had been put into office during his absence from England. For some time neither Henry nor Anselm would give way in the least; but in 1106, as the Pope, who was afraid of offending Henry, did not uphold Anselm very warmly, the quarrel was settled in this way. Henry promised that the Pope should in future have the power of giving the ring and staff to the bishops, but the bishops were, on their side, to do homage to the Kings of England for the estates belonging to their sees.

The English do not seem by all accounts to have been very happy in this reign. Their crops failed, their cattle died, and many of them became very poor. Still Henry was a much better king than his brother, William Rufus, had been, and we are told that "he was a good man," and that "no man durst ill-treat another in his time, for he made peace for men and deer." He did good in England in many ways, but in the next reign much of this good was undone, and it was not until his grandson, the second Henry, came to the throne that his work was continued.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. How did Henry act when he heard of his brother's death? What other person might have claimed the throne? Why was the latter's claim not dangerous to Henry?—2. Relate some of the ways by which Henry won the confidence of his subjects. Explain what is meant by a *charter*.—3. Relate the story of Henry's wife Matilda.—4. Explain the causes which first led people to make pilgrimages to the Holy Land. How were the pilgrims treated by the Turks? What design was formed in consequence by Peter the Hermit?—5. Give an account of the first Crusade. How did it indirectly affect this country?—6.

What disputes arose between Robert and Henry? Give the date and name of the battle in which Robert was finally subdued? What was his fate?—7. Relate the story of the wreck of the *White Ship*.—8. To whom did Henry make his nobles swear allegiance? Give the date of his death.—9. What people did Henry settle in Wales, and for what purpose?—10. About what question did Henry and Anselm dispute? Explain the meaning of *Investiture*, and show how the quarrel was at length settled.—11. Describe the condition of the English people during the reign of Henry I.

CHAPTER XIV.

STEPHEN OF BLOIS. 1135—1154.

VERY few people kept the promises they had made to Henry to support the claims of his daughter Matilda to the throne of England. Unpopularity of Matilda. Indeed, she was a hard, proud woman, little cared for by any one, and a stranger both to the English and Normans. She had married, when very young, Henry V., Emperor of Germany, and thus obtained the title of Empress. After his death her father had wedded her to Geoffrey, the son of Fulk, Count of Anjou, a man who had always been his enemy, but whose friendship he wished to win. Matilda's second marriage was much disliked by the nobles, many of whom declared that as it had been effected without their knowledge they were free from their oaths. Stephen's election. Moreover, it was not thought well for a woman to reign; and so when Stephen, the son of Adela, William the Conqueror's daughter, came over to England from his home in Blois, he found the English people quite willing to receive him, and the citizens of London chose him as their king.

Like the last two sovereigns, Stephen made plenty of promises to govern his subjects justly, and even gave them a charter. If he had had a strong will all might have gone well; but soon after he came to the throne the nobles began to get more and more power, and Stephen, instead of trying to hold them in check as Henry had done, let them have all their own way. They built a great many castles wherever they were able; they behaved pretty

much as they liked, and treated the poor people very badly.

These castles were of stone and very strong. A ditch, or moat, filled with water, was all round them. Over this ditch was a wooden bridge, which could be drawn up and down, so that no one could go into the castle unless those within allowed them. The gate leading into the castle was strengthened by a hanging door of heavy iron. This was called the *portcullis*, and it could be drawn up by chains or suddenly let down to bar the entrance. The castle walls were very strong and high, and within was a tower called a *keep*, which was so strong that no one could get inside without a great deal of trouble. Underneath this keep were cold stone cells, called dungeons, where prisoners were put and often very cruelly treated, sometimes even allowed to starve to death.

Feudal
castles.

Stephen permitted the nobles to go on building these castles and getting more power, until at last he began to fear them himself, and to think he must do something to show that he was master. But he did just the most foolish thing he could, for the people he chose to offend were those who were able to do him the greatest harm, namely, the bishops and clergy. The bishops, clergy, monks, and all those who had anything to do with the Church, always clung together; and if a king vexed any of the great men in the Church, it often caused him more trouble than anything else he could do. Besides, the bishops at this time were much occupied with the government of the land, and when, in 1139, Stephen, for some reason of his own, perhaps because he was jealous of them or thought he could not trust them, took some of the bishops prisoners, all the clergy were offended, and the country, left with no one to govern it, got into a worse state of disorder than it had ever been in before.

Stephen
and the
Church.

Confusion
in the
country.

Matilda took the opportunity of landing in England, and from this time to the end of the reign there was nothing but fighting.

Landing
of Ma-
tilda.

In 1141 Stephen was defeated at Lincoln and thrown into prison. Matilda then entered London, and was hailed everywhere in the land as its "lady." However, by her pride, she soon offended the citizens of the capital, who took up arms against her, and would have taken her captive if she had not swiftly ridden away to Oxford. Here she was so hardly beset by Stephen, who had been in the meantime set free, that she had to escape across the snow clad in white in order that she might not be seen. In 1146 she returned to Normandy.

Meanwhile the Norman nobles in their strong castles wrought all the harm they could, and ill-used the people sadly. We are told that this time was worse for England than that of which we read in the Bible, when "every man did that which was right in his own eyes;" for the laws were very weak, the King had little power, and the whole nation seemed to be divided into two hostile factions, one being for Matilda and the other for Stephen.

The nobles had their castles everywhere; "they filled the land with castles;" they made the wretched people build them, and when they were finished, we are told, they "filled them with evil men," who robbed and murdered, and seized by day and night men and women whom they put in their dungeons, sometimes torturing and starving them.

And they made the people of the towns pay them heavy taxes, and when there was no more money left for them, they robbed and burned the towns, "so that you might walk a whole day's journey and would not find a man seated in a town, or the land tilled."

At length in 1153 the people were so tired of the war that they began to try to settle the quarrel between Stephen and Matilda, by a proposal that Stephen should be king until he died, and that, after his death, Matilda's son Henry should reign. Stephen was willing

Stephen
imprisoned.
1141.

His re-
lease and
victory.

Lawless-
ness of
the time.

End of the
civil war.
1153.

to agree to this, for his eldest son had died not long before, and, with the help of Henry, he began to try and improve the country. But he had not much time left to undo the mischief which the seventeen unhappy years of his reign had caused; for in the next year he died, and Henry the Second became King of England.

Death of
Stephen.
1154.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Why did the nobles consider themselves freed from their promises to Matilda?—2. What part did the Londoners take in the election of Stephen? How did Stephen's character affect the welfare of the country?—3. Describe the Norman castles built during this reign.—4. How did Stephen offend the Church. What course of action did Matilda then adopt? Give an account of the state of England at that time.—5. To what agreement did Stephen and Henry at length come? Give the date of the latter's death.

CHAPTER XV.

HOUSE OF ANJOU. HENRY II. 1154—1189.

THE young Henry was a very different man from Stephen. He was wise, steady, and brave, could work hard, had a strong will, and a great love for law and order. He was the son of Geoffrey, Count of Anjou,* and had married a lady called Eleanor of Aquitaine. A great part of France belonged to him; for his mother left him Normandy, his father Anjou, and his wife brought him all her own lands of Poitou, Saintonge, Auvergne, Perigord, Limousin, Angoumois, and Guienne. A glance at the map will show that his French dominions were larger than his English kingdom.

As soon as Henry became king he began to try to get the country into a better state. The first thing he did was to pull down many of the castles which the lawless Norman nobles had built in Stephen's day. He next sent away the paid soldiers, who did no good and were much hated by the people; he also forbade any one to coin false money.

Then he began to think he might improve the Church; but business in France, where he had arranged that his eldest boy should marry the little daughter of the French King, took up all his thoughts for a time.

* It is said that this Geoffrey used to wear in his helmet a sprig of broom (*planta genista*), and so came to be called Plantagenet. The name afterwards became famous as that of the line of kings descended from him.



Henry had, however, set his mind on a man who; he thought, would help him in his work. This man's name was Thomas à Becket. Thomas à Becket was the son of one Gilbert à Becket, a rich man who lived in London; he had been sent to a good school, and afterwards to Paris and Oxford to study. When the father died, the Archbishop of Canterbury took Thomas into his own family, and by degrees he rose to a high place in the Church, and became known to King Henry, who used to ask his advice on many matters, and sometimes sent him on errands of great importance.

Thus Becket grew to be very rich and great, wore fine clothes, ate the richest food, kept a number of servants, and seemed so fond of the King that it was said these two young men had but one heart. Henry therefore thought Becket the best man to whom he could give the Archbishopric of Canterbury.

But King Henry had not quite understood his friend. Becket was a man who would do nothing by halves. When he was made archbishop he became a thorough churchman, and in defence of what he considered the rights of the Church he gave no thought to his own comfort or safety. On entering into his new office he quite altered his manner of living, went without food instead of eating the best that he could get, and, in place of all the nobles and great men who used to press round him, his house was filled with beggars. Then he gave up the post of Chancellor, which he had held before, thus refusing to help Henry any further in the secular improvement of the country.

The King was not very pleased with this alteration in Becket, and in the year 1163 a deadly quarrel arose between the King and the archbishop.

Whenever any one steals or commits any crime, in these days, whether he is a clergyman or not, he is either put into prison or punished in some other way. But, first, he is tried in a court of law, then a jury of twelve men, who have heard all that can be said both on his side and on

"Benefit
of clergy."

the side of the person who has been wronged, say whether they think he is guilty or not guilty. If he be found guilty, the judge sentences him to some punishment; should the accused man be a murderer, he is condemned to death by hanging. But in Becket's time no priest could be judged in this way; he must have a special trial, with a clergyman for his judge, and his judge could only give him a spiritual punishment, that is to say, he could not imprison him nor condemn him to death, but either he inflicted a "penance" or sent him out of the Church. This evil was the more widely felt because it was not necessary to be a bishop or priest, or even a deacon, to claim the protection of the Church. Any one who did the smallest work for the Church, and whom the clergy wished to favour, might assume the tonsure, that is, might have the crown of his head shaved; and he became a sacred character, so that the King's judges could not touch him. Thus many wicked deeds escaped the penalties they deserved. This privilege was called "benefit of clergy."

Henry saw that this state of things ought not to be allowed, and told Becket that, for the future, every churchman who committed a crime should be first spiritually punished by the bishops, and then tried and condemned like other folk. To this Becket would not agree, because he thought by so doing the Church would suffer; and though he and the King went over the matter again and again, no good was done, as both kept their own opinions.

At length, at Christmas, 1164, the King held a council at Clarendon, a hunting palace not far from Oxford, and here a code of law, called the "Constitutions of Clarendon," was drawn up, containing various new rules intended to make things more equal between the clergy and other people. According to the "constitutions" a priest convicted of crime before a spiritual court was at once to be handed over to a secular court. Even in the spiritual court a

Constitu-
tions of
Clarendon.
1164.

royal officer was to be present in order to see that justice was done. And anyone who thought himself wronged by the judgment of bishops might appeal to the King's court for justice. To these laws Becket was asked to give his consent, and did so, but in a very unwilling manner, while at the same time he wrote to the Pope telling him he had done what was very wrong, and asking his forgiveness.

Henry was angry with Becket, and ordered him to meet him at Northampton. There the King

Becket leaves the country. required so much from him, and made so many charges against him, that Becket believed Henry meant to ruin him, and

fled from Northampton as quickly as he could, crossing over secretly into France. He did not come back again to England for six years, and during all that time he kept up the quarrel with Henry. Both, perhaps, were in fault. Becket was obstinate, while Henry acted very meanly towards him, in driving all his family out of the country, and also in taking their lands away from some monks, because they said they would never refuse to give Becket a home.

In 1170 Henry wished to have his eldest son crowned as vice-king, or under-king of England.

The performance of this office belonged to the Archbishop of Canterbury. But in

Becket's absence the Archbishop of York was employed, and this greatly embittered

the quarrel; for Becket insisted that, as he was Archbishop of Canterbury, no one had a right to crown the prince but himself. Henry at the same time made the French King, Louis VII., very angry by this act, because that monarch's daughter, who was the prince's wife, was not crowned as well.

Indeed all the while that Becket was away from England the French King helped him in an underhand way, and the Pope of Rome also took his part. This was the reason why Henry at length agreed to give Becket, to a certain extent, his own way, and allowed him to return to England.

The coronation of Prince Henry.
1170.
Apparent reconciliation of the King and Becket.
1170.

Henry and Becket had not really made peace, and as soon as Becket reached his own city of Canterbury he uttered a great curse against the Archbishop of York, whom he had not yet forgiven, as well as against some other persons who had offended him by obeying the King's orders. Renewed protests of Becket.

When the King, who was in France at the time, heard of this act, he flew into a terrible passion, and after saying many bitter things against Becket, exclaimed, "What slug-gard wretches; what cowards have I brought up in my court, who care nothing for their master! Not one will deliver me from this low-born priest." Four of his knights heard this, and thought they would be doing Henry a pleasure by killing Becket. With haste, therefore, they left Henry, crossed the English Channel, and sped to Becket's home at Canterbury. The King's anger.

The monks who saw them coming soon feared the worst, and made Becket hasten with them into the cathedral, believing that no one would dare to touch them there. The knights, who cared for nothing so long as they worked their master's will, rushed after them, shouting, "Where is the traitor Thomas à Becket?" Becket looked at them boldly and exclaimed, "I am no traitor, but a priest of God." A fearful struggle followed, and in a few moments Becket lay dead on the ground. One of the men then cried out, "Let us go off; he will never rise again." Murder of Becket. 1170.

This deed made many people pity Becket, and think he had been in the right all the time. Some called him a saint and a martyr; they visited with reverence and awe his grave and the place where he had been killed. Henry, too, was very sorry, for he knew that his own passion had brought about the murder. But he thought the best thing he could do was to make people forget it as soon as possible, and therefore he went away to Ireland to bring that country under his rule. Its effect.

The Irish for a long time had been very unhappy.

Instead of being united under one king whom they could all obey, they had a number of chiefs, each of whom possessed a little bit of the land. Sometimes, however, one of them made himself head over the others, and this position was then held by Roderic O'Connor, King of Connaught. Dermot, or Diarmid, King of Leinster, had stolen away the wife of O'Ruarc, Prince of Leitrim. Roderic O'Connor tried to punish the robber, who escaped to England, and went to Henry for aid.

Ireland.
1171.

Promises were made to him, and in 1169 a number of Norman knights went over to Ireland, led by two half-brothers, Robert Fitzstephen and Maurice Fitzgerald. After some battles, Dermot and the Normans proved the stronger, and before long more Normans came over, among whom was a man named Strongbow. These Normans took the city of Waterford, and then went on to Dublin, where Strongbow married Dermot's daughter Eva. When Dermot died soon after, Strongbow made himself King of Leinster. This Henry did not at all like, and he ordered Strongbow to give Dublin up to him. Things were in this state, when in 1171 Henry went over to Ireland.

All the people there, except those of Ulster and Connaught, agreed to have him for their king; and if he had been able to stay longer he might have done much good to the Irish people and helped to set their land in order, in the same way that he had reformed England. But he was obliged to leave before his work was finished and go to France, there to meet the priests whom the Pope had sent to inquire whether Henry was really in fault about the murder of Becket or not. Henry swore that he had not had anything to do with it, and promised the Pope a great many things, one of which was to go on a crusade. He also had his son crowned over again, this time with his wife.

Henry's troubles seemed now to be over, but they were not. He had angered his barons by the strictness with which he enforced the law; and his wife,

who did not love him at all, plotted his ruin with the King of France, and also encouraged Henry's sons to rebel. Henry, the eldest, was the first who gave him any trouble.

Domestic troubles of the King.

The King wished him to give some of his castles to his youngest brother, John, a child of five years old, for whom Henry was anxious to make some provision. The Prince refused; he wanted some real power, he said. "What was the use of being crowned, when he could not do as he chose?" With these feelings he fled from his father's court, and took refuge with Louis, his father-in-law. He did not find it hard to get many discontented men to sympathise with what he considered his wrongs. Louis, King of France, William King of Scotland, and a number of dukes and nobles united with Prince Henry against the King. In 1174 the King of France invaded Normandy, and the King of Scotland, England.

Alliance of France and Scotland. 1174.

Henry was at first scarcely able to believe in the treachery of his son, but when once aware of his danger he acted with his usual vigour.

Believing himself still unforgiven by the people for the murder of Becket, he first sought the scene of the crime and submitted to a public scourging there. Then he marched to oppose his enemies. Though the barons had risen against him, the common people remained true to their king, who, with their aid and his own energy, was soon enabled to put down the rebellion. The Scotch King, with his army, fell into the hands of the English; and, his own sons being forced to submit, Henry gained a complete victory. To his honour he used it with mercy. No one suffered death, though some were fined and several castles were pulled down.

Henry's penance.

His victory.

But Henry's sons did not long leave him in peace. Prince Henry complained that his father did not trust him, and this, after his late behaviour, was not surprising. He insisted that his brothers ought to do him homage.

Continued war between Henry's sons. 1183.

Richard, who held Aquitaine and Poitou, consented; but Henry soon got up a quarrel with him on some other grounds, and having obtained help from some of Richard's own nobles, sent an army against him in 1183. King Henry was obliged to go to Richard's assistance. Prince Henry, however, died of a fever in the midst of the struggle, asking on his death-bed for the forgiveness of his father, who refused to see him. His death was soon followed by that of Henry's third son, Geoffrey.

Although Richard and John were now the only sons that Henry had left to him, they were not contented to remain at peace, and entered into a plot with the King of France to make war against their father. Henry was ill and could not carry on the war with vigour, so that his enemies did a great deal of mischief, and at last set fire to the town of Le Mans, in which Henry had been born, and where he was at the time staying.

Ill, and miserable at the conduct of Richard, for as yet he did not know that John, too, had rebelled, Henry had to fly for his life from the burning town; and though scarcely able to sit on his horse, he rode all day until he reached Frenaye, which was on the road to Normandy. From Frenaye he went after a few days to Chinon, while Philip II., the new King of France, continued the war, and Henry was not able to oppose him.

At length news came that Tours had been taken by Philip, and Henry made an effort to meet him, although his illness was becoming more and more severe. He had to be carried to Azai, near which town the meeting was to take place, and there, in the midst of a terrible thunderstorm, and held on horseback by his men, he was obliged to submit to Philip, and promise to forgive his son. Then he asked for a list of those who had rebelled against him. After it had been given to him he went home to rest. When he was at leisure he opened the list of rebels, and the first name which met his eye was

that of his much-loved son John. Turning his face to the wall he cried, "I have nothing left to care for now, let all things go their way." Nor did he ever recover from this blow, but sank quickly, repeating every now and then the words, "Shame, shame on a conquered king." He died July 6th, 1189.

Death of
Henry.
1189.

The Normans and English were by this time gradually growing into one nation; and the customs of the two united were forming the foundation of our present government. The Saxon Witenagemot still remained, but was called the "Great Council" of the King. In it sat the greater nobles, but they had little freedom to oppose the royal will, although the King professed it was by their advice that laws were made or altered.

Union of
Normans
and English.

Besides the great council, there were two very important courts, the *Curia Regis** and the *Court of Exchequer*.

Curia Regis.

The former was a great court of justice, of which the King was head; and when he was away from home his place was taken by his chief minister, or "Justiciar." Whenever a quarrel arose among the King's tenants which could not be settled at a lower court it was brought before the "*Curia Regis*," and Henry, who wished to bring the country into order, used to send judges from this court through the different counties to do justice and see that the taxes were brought in.

The taxes were paid into the *Court of Exchequer*, which was held at Westminster, at Easter and Michaelmas. The Justiciar, with the Chancellor, who wrote the King's letters, the Treasurer, who had charge of the royal treasure, and all their clerks and servants, were obliged to attend, and each one to take a part of the business. They sat in two rooms. In the upper one the accounts were kept, and in the lower the money paid in. The table on which the money was

Court of
Exchequer.

* This is simply the Latin for "King's Court."

laid was covered with a checkered cloth, and this gave the place the name of the Court of Exchequer.

The taxes, however, were not always paid in money; and often corn, cattle, horses, hounds, or hawks were brought to the Court of Exchequer as the tribute of the counties. The little meetings of the Saxons still continued, but were connected with the Curia Regis, while many towns were by degrees growing up and buying from the King charters of freedom.

Henry trusted more in the common people than in the nobles, and he dealt several blows at the power of the latter. In the feudal system every one who held land to the amount of £20 was obliged to send a man called a knight, clad in complete armour, to serve for his lord in the war. Every baron who had a number of feudal tenants had generally many knights at his command; but although they were supposed to belong to the King's army, they might at any time forsake him and fight for their immediate lord. Henry, to guard himself from this, compelled his vassals to pay him a sum of money, instead of furnishing him with men to serve in his foreign wars. He also returned to the old idea which was in force among the Saxons, that every freeman ought to serve in the defence of the land, and he ordered every knight, freeholder, and citizen to provide himself with arms. This was called "The Assize of Arms," and was issued 1181. In another code of law called the Assize of Clarendon, and issued 1166, it was ordered that twelve men from every district, and four from every town, should present for trial those persons who had broken the laws. These men were named jurors, and were not only witnesses but judges. From this assize can be traced our modern system of trial by jury.

There were two ways of trying criminals which appear very strange to us now. One was the trial by ordeal which had existed among the Saxons, the other the trial by battle brought in by the Normans. In the trial by ordeal the accused person, after the

reading of a religious service, was obliged to put his hand into boiling water, or to take hold of red hot iron. If the wound thus caused healed quickly the person was considered innocent of the charge brought against him, but if not he was guilty. In the trial by battle the accused and accuser fought, and whoever conquered was thought to be in the right.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>1. From what three persons did Henry II. derive his dominions?—2. Mention some of his earlier reforms.—3. Whom did Henry choose as an assistant in this work? Describe the character of his friend, and show how the King was mistaken in him.—4. What was the cause of the quarrel between the King and his minister?—5. What privileges did the clergy possess in those days?—6. Explain clearly what were the <i>Constitutions of Clarendon</i>.—7. How did Henry in 1170 greatly embitter the quarrel with Becket, and offend the French King?—8. What led to the murder of Thomas à Becket, and what effect did it have?—9. Describe the course of events in</p> | <p>Ireland at this time.—10. What great nobles conspired to rebel against Henry in 1174, and with what result?—11. Give an account of Richard's revolt against his father.—12. By what name was the Saxon Witenagemót afterwards called? Did it retain much power?—13. Give a clear explanation of the <i>Court of Exchequer</i> and the <i>Curia Regis</i>.—14. Who was the <i>Justiciar</i>?—15. When was the <i>Assize of Arms</i> issued and for what purpose?—16. From what Assize can our system of trial by jury be traced?—17. Mention two ways in which persons accused of crimes were tried.</p> |
|--|--|

CHAPTER XVI.

RICHARD I., SURNAMED CŒUR DE LION, OR LION
HEART. 1189—1199.

RICHARD, who now succeeded to the throne, was called Cœur de Lion, which means lion-hearted, because he was brave in war; but though he had great courage and a forgiving disposition, he was very careless of his duty as a king, and did more good to England by leaving it alone than by any other means. We have just read of his war against his father. Had it not been for that war, Henry had intended to go on a crusade; and Richard, to show that he was sorry for his past conduct, and also to win fame and honour, determined to fulfil his father's promise, and go to the Holy Land himself.

The beginning of Richard's reign was disgraced by a terrible massacre of the Jews, who were much hated by the people of those times. In accordance with the wishes of his Christian subjects, the King had forbidden any of them to be present at his coronation. Some disobeyed the order, and were treated very roughly by the soldiers. This was the signal for a general rising against the Jews in all parts of London. Other towns followed the example of the capital, and in Norwich, Stamford, and York hundreds of Jews were murdered.

To gain money for his crusade Richard displaced many of his father's servants, and made all those whom he put in their stead give him large sums. He also imprisoned Ranulf Glanville, the late King's Justiciar, and compelled him to pay him a heavy fine before he was set free.

Massacre
of Jews.
1189.

Sale of
offices.

The government of the kingdom was left in the hands of William Longchamp, Bishop of Ely, while Hugh de Puiset, Bishop of Durham, was appointed to help him. To his brother John Richard gave several counties, and enriched him with high honours; but at the same time he refused to make him his heir, as there was still living a son of his brother Geoffrey, who, he thought, had the better right to the crown. Fearing, therefore, that John might, by his plots, disturb the peace of the land, the King made him promise to leave England for three years. Afterwards, however, he allowed him to return, when John repaid his brother by trying to get his kingdom away from him.

Government in the King's absence. 1190--1194.

In 1190, Richard, with Philip, King of France, set sail for the Holy Land; but before they reached it they quarrelled, and disputes and jealousy among the leaders of the crusade rendered the expedition a failure. When, in the mid-summer of 1192, the crusaders came within sight of Jerusalem, they were too worn out by war and sickness to continue the struggle, and Richard, it is said, covered his eyes with his mantle, not daring to look upon the holy city which he felt himself unworthy to take.

Richard's Crusade. 1190.

Returning home through Austria, Richard was taken prisoner by Duke Leopold, one of his most bitter enemies. The Duke sold him to Henry VI., Emperor of Germany, who, partly out of favour to the King of France, and partly in the hope of making gain for himself, kept him a close prisoner.

Captivity of the King, Oct. 1192 to Feb. 1194.

During the King's absence disputes had arisen between Longchamp and Hugh de Puiset. Hugh was a rich old man of a noble family, and looked on Longchamp, who was of more lowly origin, as an upstart. Soon after the King had started the two rulers had a serious quarrel; and, knowing that Richard had not then left France for the Holy Land, they crossed the

Disorders at home.

Channel and laid their complaints before him. When Hugh returned, Longchamp ordered that he should be thrown into prison. This left Longchamp at the head of affairs. He soon made himself much hated by the nobles, through living in great splendour, getting money by many unjust devices, and advancing his own relations. Nevertheless, he preserved peace for a time.

Meanwhile John returned to England; while Eleanor, his mother, set out to take Richard his betrothed wife, Berengaria of Navarre. Discontent now began to show itself. In 1192 the barons met at Reading, and agreed among themselves that Longchamp should no longer rule the land. The Archbishop of Rouen was made Justiciar, or chief officer of justice, in his stead. It was determined also that John should represent his brother, and be looked upon as heir to the throne. As yet he had not shown his true character, and was trusted by the English.

But the victory John had gained over Longchamp did not satisfy him; for Eleanor, who soon returned, and the Justiciar, knowing the mischief he might do, let him have little real power; and while the English waited with anxiety for news of Richard, John was plotting with Philip of France to keep the King in captivity.

At last, in February, 1193, the news came that Richard was in a dismal prison in Germany. Messengers were at once sent to ask for his release, and it was soon found that he would be set free if a large sum of money were paid for him to the Emperor of Germany. And now a touching instance was given of English loyalty. The whole people bestirred themselves to raise the money. The knights and the monks gave largely, while the lower ranks paid away a fourth of their goods for the ransom, so that in February, 1194, Richard was once more free. "Take care of yourself, for the devil is let loose," wrote the King of France to John when he heard this news. And

Change of
Govern-
ment.
1192.

Treachery
of John.

Ransom of
Richard.

indeed John had good reason to fear the return of his brother. He had plotted and striven to make himself chief in his absence, but Queen Eleanor and the people had stood bravely by their absent king; and when Richard appeared all John's schemes came to naught, and his party was completely broken up.

From March 13th to May 12th, and no longer, did the King stay in this country. He judged and punished his enemies, but freely forgave his brother, and made peace between those who had been quarrelling while he was away. Then, leaving Hubert Walter as ruler, he again quitted England.

Hubert
Walter.
1194.

Hubert proved himself to be quite worthy of the trust. He continued the good work of Henry II.; and under his guidance the English became more and more attached to order, so that when in the next reign the King tried to take away their rights, they were able to withstand him in a way they could not have done, had they not been for many years learning with patience the good of having fixed laws to obey.

Meanwhile Richard was engaged in a war with his enemy the King of France; and to guard his lands in Normandy he built over a bend of the river Seine a large castle which he called "Saucy Castle." At this castle he would often look with pride, and say, "How pretty a child is mine, this child of but one year old!" Indeed, Richard always showed that the two things for which he most cared were war and money; and he died as he had lived, fighting for some gold which had been found in the fields of Limousin by the Lord of Chaluz. A part was sent him, but not all, and he desired more. As he was riding round the castle of Chaluz he was wounded by a poisoned arrow.

Death of
Richard.
1199.

While he was ill of his wound, his soldiers took the castle and slew all its defenders, except the man who had shot the King. He was brought for judgment before Richard, who said to him, "What have I done that you should take my life?" "You

have killed my father and my two brothers," returned the man, "and I would bear any torture to see you die." For this bold speech Richard ordered that he should be set free; but the command was disobeyed, and the soldier was put to death with great cruelty.

Richard, shortly before his death, acknowledged his brother John as his heir. He died April 7th, 1199.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. What was the character of Richard I.? -2. How was the beginning of his reign disgraced? -3. How did Richard gain money for his Crusade? -4. In whose hands was the government of England left during the absence of the King? -5. What rendered the Crusade a failure? -6. By whom was Richard taken captive during his journey home? Who were in league against | him? -7. What events occurred while he was away from England? -8. What instance was given of English loyalty when the news arrived in this country of the King's captivity? -9. How long did he remain, and how did he act while here? -10. What castle did Richard build, and for what purpose? -11. What caused the death of King Richard? |
|---|--|

CHAPTER XVII.

JOHN, SURNAMED SANSTERRE OR LACKLAND.

1199—1216.

AS soon as Richard was dead John was chosen to be King of England, although his elder brother Geoffrey had left a boy, Arthur, who, as we should now think, had a better right to the crown. The King of France, and many of the people of Normandy and of John's other French provinces, supported Arthur's cause, and John had to fight against them as soon as he began his reign.

John, who was not without talents, and was skilful in war, gained a victory in 1203 over his nephew at a place called Mirabel, in Poitou, and took both him and his sister Eleanor prisoners. What became of Arthur was not really known, but every one believed that he had been murdered by his uncle. As John was not able to clear himself of the charge, we can feel tolerably certain that it was a true one. One story is that John told Hubert, the man who had charge of Arthur in the prison, to put his eyes out with a red hot iron; but that Hubert, seeing Arthur's distress, had not the heart to do it. We are again told that John went to see Arthur, and tried to persuade him to relinquish his claim on England, but that the lad declared both England and France were his by right, and he would sooner die than give up either. Then it is said John went sadly away, and the report ran that he had stabbed his nephew with a dagger.

When Arthur thus suddenly disappeared, Philip,

Prince
Arthur
passed over.

Capture of
Arthur.
1203.

King of France summoned John to come to him and ^{John the} ~~give~~ ^{French} ~~an account~~ ^{of} his nephew. Of this ^{1205.} ~~demanded~~ John took no notice. Philip, there- ~~fore,~~ ^{fore,} made war on him, and very quickly took from him all his French lands, leaving him only the Channel Islands and Aquitaine.

This was a great loss to John, but in the end it was a good thing for the English people, as the ~~king~~ ^{king} were obliged to attend more to the welfare of their island home and the interests of its inhabitants when they had only England to think about; and from that time (1205) they became more truly Eng- ~~lish~~ ^{lish} kings than they ever had been before. It is true that for a long time afterwards attempts, occa- sionally successful, were made to recover these French dominions; but even the attempt required the willing help of the English people, and made the King more dependent upon their favour.

In the same year (1205) John began a quarrel with the Pope. The dispute arose thus. The Pope considered himself to be the head of the Church, and obliged all the bishops, clergy, and even kings and princes, to obey him in spiritual matters.

Now the Archbishop of Canterbury was dead, and another had to be chosen in his place. The monks of Canterbury said it was their right to choose the ^{John and} ~~new~~ ^{the Pope.} ~~Archbishop,~~ and they elected their own chief, or sub-prior, as he was called, while John ordered a favourite bishop of his, John de Grey, to be put in this high office. John and the Canterbury monks sent to the Pope to hear what he would say. He declared both parties to be in the wrong; said he would choose the Archbishop him- self; and in 1107 sent over Stephen Langton, a great and good man, who did England very true service.

When John heard the Pope's decision he was very angry, refused to let the new Archbishop enter the country, and drove the Canterbury monks beyond the seas. Then the Pope, to punish ^{Papal} ~~and~~ ^{interdict.} ~~him,~~ in 1208 laid the country under an ~~interdict.~~ An interdict was a terrible curse

which the Pope uttered against any country whose king or people offended him. As long as it lasted no clergyman was allowed to hold a service in any of the churches, no one could be married except in the church porch, and no prayers were allowed to be said over the dead or dying. This caused a great deal of misery in England, for in those days the faith of the people in the power of the Church over the welfare of their souls was very strong, and they were assured that the Pope, as the successor of St. Peter, held the keys of heaven. However, the King had made up his mind to show that he did not care for the Pope, and took all their lands away from those bishops and priests who obeyed orders from Rome. When any person did one of such priests a wrong the King would not allow him to be punished. Once, when a Welshman was brought before him for the murder of a priest, he exclaimed, "Let him go, for he has killed my enemy!"

But the Pope had quite determined to get his own way; and in 1209 he issued a still stronger sentence against the King himself, which was called an *excommunication*. This meant that John was cut off from the Church, and that all Christians should treat him as a heathen Excommunication of John.
1209.

man. John, afraid of his nobles and afraid of the Pope, kept moving about from place to place, making war in Scotland, Ireland, and Wales, and laying on his people the very heaviest taxes. To the Jews he was especially cruel, and robbed them of their riches, putting many of them to torture in order to make them say how much money they had.

And now the Pope declared John was no longer fit to reign, and said it was the duty of all Christian kings and princes to take his lands away from him. Philip, King of France, was only too glad to obey, and gathered together a great army to come and make war against John. Papal deposition of John.
1212. The English people, wearied of their King's misgovernment, were ready to receive Philip as a deliverer.

Then John was really alarmed. He promised to receive Stephen Langton and to restore to those bishops whom he had driven from the country the lands that he had taken from them. Not stopping here, he agreed, in 1213, to give up his crown to the Pope, that he might receive it back as the Pope's vassal, and do service for it, as his nobles did service to him for their lands.

When the English heard what he had done they were filled with anger and shame. To them it seemed that the country was disgraced by the King's making himself the Pope's vassal, and they determined they would not allow him to continue his unkingly conduct much longer. John had thought that by giving up his crown to the Pope he might get help from him against his enemy Philip. He also called on his nobles to aid him in getting back the lands he had lost in Normandy. Great was his surprise when they refused to do so, and instead met at St. Albans, where they agreed that all the complaints against their King should be inquired into.

All this happened while John was in France fighting against Philip. But after a great battle at Bouvines, in 1214, he was so thoroughly defeated that he could go on with the war no longer, and was obliged to return to England, where he found Stephen Langton and most of his nobles arrayed against him. They declared that they meant no longer to obey him unless he would do them justice, and he, on his side, said he should grant no liberties which would make him a slave.

The nobles replied by marching upon London with an army called "The Army of God and His Holy Church." John then gave way to them as he had before given way to the Pope, and agreed to meet them at Runnymede, on the banks of the Thames. Here, on June 15th, 1215, Stephen Langton and the barons laid before him a document containing many things to

The King's
humiliation.
1213.

The popular
indignation.

Battle of
Bouvines.
1214.

Magna
Charta.
1215.

which he was compelled to swear. This document was called *Magna Charta*, or the Great Charter; and we always look back to the signing of it as one of the greatest and best things that ever happened for the English people. Though kings had before made promises and given charters, this one went further than any former one had done, and some of our best laws are founded on it. It forbade the King to tax the people, except on certain occasions, without the consent of his bishops, barons, and tenants of the Crown assembled in a national council. It gave foreign merchants leave to travel through England free of unreasonable taxes, and forbade any one to be put in prison unless brought to a just and lawful trial. It also secured the right of towns to manage their own affairs. And by it the King promised no longer to use the courts of law as a means of getting money by the sale of justice. "To no man," says the Charter, "will we sell, to no man will we deny or delay, right or justice."

Not only did the nobles make John swear to the Charter, but they chose twenty-five of their number to look after him and see that he kept his word; and they sent all over the land copies of the Charter, which had to be sworn to at every little meeting in town or shire.

At first John was in a great fury, and said that they had given him "five-and-twenty over-kings." Then he began to think how he could best break his promises. He at once sent to the Pope for help, and the Pope disgraced Stephen Langton, released the King from his promise, and threatened the barons with excommunication. The barons answered with a verse from the Bible, and said, "Woe unto them who justify the wicked for reward;" and in this case Langton refused to obey the Pope. John now brought into the land a number of paid soldiers from abroad, with whom he marched through England, burning the towns and doing all the harm he could. The nobles, and indeed all the people, did not know what to do to defend themselves against

so bad a king, and at last invited Louis, son of the King of France, to come over and help them. Louis came, but he soon gained the dislike of the English by giving away lands to his own friends. Soon after his arrival, John, while crossing the Wash between Norfolk and Lincolnshire, was surprised by the tide, and lost all his baggage and royal treasure.

Death of
John.

1216. He took shelter at the Abbey of Swineshead, where he ate and drank so much that he brought on a fever, of which he died a few days later at Newark, October 19th, 1216.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>1. Who was chosen to be King of England at Richard's death, and was there any other claimant to the throne?—2. Give the date of the battle of Mirabel. Who were taken prisoners there?—3. What stories are told of the fate of Prince Arthur?—4. What effect had the disappearance of Arthur on Philip, King of France?—5. Did the loss of John's French provinces do good or harm to his English subjects, and how?—6. Explain clearly what gave rise to John's quarrel with the Pope.—7. What was meant by an <i>interdict</i> and</p> | <p><i>excommunication</i>?—8. Who took the opportunity of making war on John?—9. How did John act in this dilemma, and what effect had his conduct on his own subjects?—10. What great battle was fought in 1214, and with what results?—11. Where and when did John meet his barons? What did they compel him to do?—12. To whom did John apply for aid, and what reply did he receive?—13. Whom did the nobles ask for help?—14. Where and when did John die</p> |
|---|--|

CHAPTER XVIII.

HENRY III. OF WINCHESTER. 1216—1272.

WHEN John was dead the English people at once began to feel that they did not want to have a French sovereign, and proclaimed John's little son, Henry, who was only ten years old. This prince was called Henry of Winchester, from the place of his birth. As he was not able to govern the country himself, William Marshall (or Mareschal), the Earl of Pembroke, was chosen to act in his place, and received the title of "Guardian of the Kingdom."

William
Earl
Mareschal.

The nobles then assembled, and agreed to keep the Great Charter and to maintain just government. Next they began to consider how they could best get rid of Louis, who, of course, did not like to leave England without receiving anything for his trouble. However, Louis had so deeply offended the English that not only his opponents, but also those who had fought on his side, determined to join together and send him out of the country. They gained two great battles over him: the first, which was called the "Fair of Lincoln," was fought in the streets of that town, May 17th, 1217; and the second took place at sea, near Calais.

Expulsion
of Louis.

In the latter battle the English, under Hubert de Burgh, the Justiciar, defeated the French by throwing quick lime at them and shooting arrows in their faces. Then, while they were confused and unable to see, the English fastened their ships to those of the enemy by chains

Sea fight.
1217.

with hooks at the end. This enabled them to destroy so many of the French ships that only fifteen escaped. After this defeat Louis was willing to make peace and return to France.

In 1219 the Earl of Pembroke died; Hubert de Burgh was chosen in his stead; and Peter de Roches, Bishop of Winchester, was made guardian of the boy king. These two men were very jealous of each other, but Hubert was the better of the two; and though he was rather too fond of money, he really tried to do good to the English people. When Henry was eighteen, however, he grew tired of being looked after by Peter de Roches, and said he would manage things himself. Peter therefore left the country, but Hubert went on with his work five years longer.

In 1228 died Stephen Langton, who had made it the business of his latter days to maintain the Great Charter, which he had done so much to gain. Peter de Roches returned in 1232, and persuaded Henry and the people that Hubert was not doing his duty properly. For this purpose he made a great many charges against Hubert, some of which were very silly indeed, as, for instance, that he had given a talisman to the Prince of Wales to defend him from injury, and that he had used witchcraft to keep the King in his power. Hubert was also ordered to give an account of all the money which had come into his hands; he saw that the King meant to ruin him, and fled to a church at Brentwood. The King sent after him and had him dragged forth, but the smith who was ordered to put fetters upon him exclaimed, "I will die any death before I put irons on the man who freed England from the stranger and saved Dover from the French." Hubert was allowed to return to the church; but as he could get no food there he was soon obliged to give himself up, and was thrown into prison.

Having thus got rid of Hubert, the King tried to reign by himself; but he was always making favourites, first of one man and

Royal
favourites.

then of another; and these favourites were often bad men who did him no good. In 1236 he married Eleanor, the daughter of Raymond, Duke of Provence, and sister to the Queen of France. Eleanor persuaded the King to invite over many of her friends and relations, and to put them into places of power. These foreigners were mainly anxious to fill their own pockets, and Henry, who was always giving them money, got into debt himself and was obliged to tax his people heavily.

Then, too, Henry had a great dislike to keeping the promises which were written down in the Great Charter, and though he swore to do so over and over again he never kept his oaths.

Breaches of
the Charter.

We saw how, in the last reign, Henry's father, John, gave his kingdom to the Pope, and promised for the future to be his vassal and to pay him a large sum of money for allowing him to be king. After John was dead, the Pope, who insisted that the young King should keep his father's promise, made frequent demands on the English for money, and sent numbers of his Italian bishops and clergy over to England, thus adding to the many foreigners already in the land. Indeed, some Italian clergymen, who never came over to England at all, had English money given to them for doing nothing. At last the King's misgovernment at home and his weak submission to foreign influences became unbearable, and a universal feeling arose that something must be done. All that the people wanted was a leader who could direct them to a wise remedy.

Papal
encroach-
ments.

Under these circumstances the English were helped in their difficulties by a brave man named Simon de Montfort. He was just the opposite of Henry, being strong, true, wise, and well worthy of being looked up to by the English. Strange to say, he also was a foreigner, and had married the King's sister.

Simon de
Montfort,
Earl of
Leicester.

The assembly of men who gathered together to

make laws for the country had by this time gained the name of a Parliament, a name connected with the word *parley* (French, *parler*); to speak; and when this Parliament met in the year 1257, they thought it was time for some step to be taken. Every day hundreds of people were dying of hunger, and the Pope was still continually asking for large sums of money, while the King, although he could not pay his own debts, had been weak enough to promise him a great deal more. Henry had, besides, very foolishly accepted from the Pope the island of Sicily for his little son Edmund. But as this island did not in reality belong to the Pope, and was claimed by some one else, the present was more a trouble than a gain to the King.

Indignant at the King's folly and wastefulness, the barons, led by Earl Simon, met Henry at Westminster, May, 1258, and reproached him for the wrong and foolish way in which he had been spending the money of the country. He in reply promised, if his debts were paid, to govern better. He agreed also to meet them again at Oxford, where they were to consider what alteration should be made in the laws of the land.

So, in the month of July in that same year, the King and his barons again met, and this meeting was called the "Mad Parliament," because it was so unlike any that had ever been held before. The barons chose twelve men on their side, and the King twelve on his, and these twenty-four men all swore that the laws should be improved. They in their turn named fifteen men, who wrote down the conclusions they had formed, and which were called the "Provisions of Oxford." By these "Provisions" a system of government was framed which would constrain the King always to act under the advice of trusty men. The King, his eldest son Edward, and the barons, all swore to keep these "Provisions," and for a little time things seemed to go on more smoothly.

The Mad
Parliament.
1258.

"Provisions
of Oxford."
1258.

Henry, however, soon grew tired of being thus bound, and wrote to the Pope asking him if he might not break his word with the English. The Pope gave him leave to do as he chose, and sent him a letter to that effect. This letter Henry ordered to be read publicly. The barons were exceedingly angry, and hardly knowing what to do, agreed to ask the advice of Louis IX., King of France, who was considered a very wise man.

The King of France took Henry's side, and among other things said that he ought to be allowed to have entire freedom in the choice of his friends. This was just what the barons did not want, and as they could not make the King promise to send the foreigners away, they determined to go to war with him. The Barons' War.

After a little fighting the two armies, the one headed by the King and his son, the other by Simon de Montfort, met in 1264 at a place called Lewes, where they fought a great battle. Battle of Lewes. 1264. Simon gained the day, and Henry was taken prisoner. But Edward, Henry's son, changed places with him, and was kept by the barons as a hostage for his father's good faith. By Simon's persuasion the people came to an agreement, which was called the "Mise* of Lewes," and for some time after Simon had more power than anybody else. "Mise of Lewes."

He tried to use this power well, and as he was anxious to do justice to every one, he called a Parliament. This Parliament was different from any that had preceded it, as he summoned to it not only nobles, bishops, and certain knights from every shire, but also two citizens or burgesses from every town. These last had never been admitted to the Great Council of the realm before. The counties had on several occasions previously been represented by knights selected for that purpose. But the merchants and handicraftsmen Simon's Parliament. 1265.

* "Mise" means an arrangement or decision.

swelling in the commons had hitherto no voice at all in the Parliament. And it was their admission which was the new feature in Simon's assembly. Of course this was a great improvement, because as the Parliament has to make the laws of the land, it is not safe to have only great nobles in it; for then they would be likely to make laws fit only for themselves, and not for commoner men.

Meanwhile Prince Edward, who was very anxious to get free, began to watch for some means of escape.

One day, when he was out on horseback, he asked his guards to try whether he or they could ride the fastest. They agreed, but soon grew tired, and then Edward, while they were not looking, rode away from them on a swift horse which he had been keeping for the purpose.

Once free, Edward determined to get the better of Simon, and after he had been watching the move-

ments of his army for some time, he thought that he could defeat him. So, while Simon was quite unaware of his coming, Edward drew near with his soldiers and met him at Evesham on the 4th of August, 1265.

When Simon saw Edward in the distance he knew that all was lost, for his troops were marching along in good order, and their numbers were far larger than his own. "They come on in wise fashion," he cried, "but it was I who taught them how to fight." He also added, "God have mercy on our souls! for our bodies are the prince's." Then he besought his men to fly while there was yet time, but they refused to desert him. His son begged that he might fight the battle alone, but Simon was far too brave a man to listen to such requests as these, and the struggle began. He saw his soldiers lying slain and wounded around him, but even after his horse had been killed under him he went on fighting like a giant, until at last he fell, sword in hand, entirely overpowered by numbers. In three hours the battle was decided in favour of Edward.

At first the cause of freedom and good laws for the

English seemed to have died with Simon, as all the people whom he had led were quite downcast and afraid. But his sons and a few more of his followers kept up the struggle for two years at Kenilworth Castle and in the Fens. At last they also were conquered, and peace was made.

After this Edward and his brother went on a crusade. While they were away their father died, November 16th, 1272.

But, though Simon's cause seemed to be a failure, it was not really so. For in May, 1267, Magna Charta was signed once more, and thenceforward kept. Indeed, Simon de Montfort lived just long enough to make that Charter safe for ever. For his parliamentary burgesses were the beginning of the House of Commons. And as the power of this House rapidly grew it became the practice to refuse to vote money for the King when the Great Charter was broken. It will be seen in following chapters how effectual this arrangement was for the preservation of English freedom.

Practical
triumph
of Simon de
Montfort.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Whom did the English proclaim King on the death of John, and who was appointed guardian of the kingdom?—2. To what agreement did the nobles come? What two battles were fought?—3. Who was chosen instead of the Earl of Pembroke in 1219, and who took charge of the King?—4. To what decision did Henry come when he was eighteen? Give the date of Stephen Langton's death. What had he made the business of his latter days?—5. How did Peter de Roches act on his return in 1232? Was Henry influenced by him?—6. What did Henry attempt when he had got rid of Hubert? What mistakes did he make?—7. When and whom did Henry marry, and what influence had his marriage on the country?—8. Give an account of some of the grievances under which the English suffered in this reign.—9. By whom were the English helped

in these difficulties? Describe his character.—10. Give the date of the *Provisions of Oxford*, and explain what they were.—11. How did Henry and the Pope act towards each other? Whose advice did the barons ask, and with what result?—12. To what determination did the barons come when they found their King refused to send the foreigners away? What battle was fought, and who changed places with the King?—13. How did Simon de Montfort use his power? Explain clearly the difference between the Parliament called by him and those that had preceded it.—14. How did Prince Edward manage to escape? Describe the battle of Evesham. Where was the struggle still kept up?—15. Did Simon de Montfort on the whole succeed or fail? and how?—16. Give the date of the death of Henry.

CHAPTER XIX.

EDWARD I., SURNAMED LONGSHANKS. 1272—1307.

ALTHOUGH Edward was away from home when his father died, the English had no thought of choosing any other man for their king; and all peaceably awaited his return.

Edward's crusade had not been a very successful one, and although he had shown himself a brave man, he had done very little good by the war. Still he had made men fear him. In

1272 an attempt was made to murder him in his tent. A story was told, and many people believed it, that the dagger with which he was struck was poisoned, and that his wife Eleanor sucked the poison out of the wound.

On his way home Edward heard first of his father's death, and soon afterwards of that of his eldest son, a boy six years old. He, therefore, made all possible speed, and, on the 2nd of August, 1274, landed at Dover, and was crowned on the 19th day of the same month.

Edward was not weak and easily led like his father, but strong and brave, eager to make wise laws, a good soldier, and a thorough Englishman. For his motto he chose the words, "Keep troth." It was not long before he showed his people what manner of man he was.

It should be remembered that the West of England had never been conquered by the Angles and Saxons when they came over to this country, but that the Ancient Britons, or Welsh, still lived there and had their own native princes to rule

Royal nature
of the new
King.



over them. By degrees, however, they lost a great deal of their land, until at last the only district remaining independent was the small portion still called Wales. Even in part of that the King of England was acknowledged as over-lord.

The Welsh were a wild people, fond of stories, poetry, and songs. Their bards wandered from house to house, harp in hand, singing as they went, and telling tales of Arthur, the ancient British king, and of his Knights of the Round Table. The people were also very savage and warlike, and whenever the English were in any trouble among themselves, would always make matters worse by taking part with any noble who might rebel against his king. Edward knew this, and was, therefore, anxious to bring Wales into order.

Soon after he was crowned the King sent for the Prince of Wales, whose name was Llewellyn, and told him he must do him homage, that is to say, own him as his over-lord. At first Llewellyn refused, but after a time he consented, and made friends with Edward, who gave him his cousin Eleanor, the daughter of Simon de Montfort, for his wife. As Eleanor's father had been killed whilst fighting against Edward, it is probable that she had not much love for her King, and was not likely to make peace between him and her husband.

Llewellyn had a brother, David, who for some years had been in Edward's service, and had received many favours from him. This brother, when he saw that Edward and Llewellyn were likely to agree, was very angry, as he wanted Wales for himself; and with this object in view he tried to induce his brother to rebel against the King. Still the peace between them lasted for four years. But in 1282 the brothers rose and seized some of the border castles.

The Welsh had full belief in a prophecy which had been made, they said, centuries before by an old man named Merlin. This prophecy said that "When English money became

Llewellyn's
homage.

Welsh
Rebellion.
1282.

Merlin's
prophecy.

round the Prince of Wales should be crowned in London," and as Edward had just forbidden his subjects to break the money into halves and quarters, as the custom then was, and had issued round half-pennies and farthings, the Welsh all thought that a grand time was coming for them, and that they would be sure to conquer in the war.

In this they were very much mistaken, for as soon as Edward heard that the Welsh had risen against him he got a large army together, and

Death of Llewellyn. Llewellyn was slain in a battle fought on the banks of the river Wye, December, 1282. His head was cut off and carried, crowned with a wreath of ivy leaves, on the point of a lance through the streets of London. This was done in savage mockery of the prophecy that a Welsh prince should be crowned in London.

Though Llewellyn was slain, his brother David did not at first give up; but in the following June, 1283, he too was taken prisoner, and as he had once served Edward, and had afterwards risen against him, he was judged to be a traitor, and was therefore condemned to lose his head. The two Welsh princes were now dead; and as Edward had a little son born at Carnarvon during the war, he gave him the title of Prince of Wales. This title has ever since been given to the eldest son of the sovereign.

But although Edward to some extent brought Wales under English government, yet the Principality, as it is called, did not become thoroughly united to England until the reign of another king, Henry VIII.

The year after Edward had conquered Wales was spent in improving the laws of his own land; but in 1286 he went over to France, and stayed there for three years. For the first two years everything went on well; but in the third year some of the great nobles began to fight among themselves on the Welsh border, and Edward felt it was time for him to be at home again. He found

Death of
Llewellyn.

Fate of
David.
1283.

Submission
of Wales.
1284.

Edward's
home go-
vernment.

that while he had been away some of the judges had been behaving very badly; and these men he now punished, by taking their places of trust away from them and giving them to others.

Edward was at this time in great want of money, and in order that he might get his people to give him some he did that for which he has been much blamed since; he sent all the Jews out of the land. This seems to us a very cruel act; but before we judge Edward too hardly, we must remember that at that time the Jews were very much disliked by every one, while the English fancied them guilty of many fearful crimes.

Edward, however, did not behave to the Jews so badly as his subjects did, for he gave orders that they were to be allowed to take with them everything that they possessed, and also provided for their passage across the channel ships in which the poor could sail at a very small expense. But the men in charge of these vessels disobeyed the King's orders, and treated the Jews badly, robbing them, and even throwing some of them into the sea.

In 1290 Edward lost his wife, who had always been most devoted to him, and who, by her gentleness and kindness, had won the hearts of all the English people. "We loved her tenderly in her lifetime, we do not cease to love her in death," were Edward's words when she was gone; and to show his honour for her memory, he had her body brought by slow stages from Hardey, in Lincolnshire, where she died, and buried among the kings at Westminster. At every place where her body rested he had a cross set up, that the people of England might long remember her. This is the origin of the name "Eleanor Cross" which is given to a certain form of memorial crosses. King's Cross and Charing Cross were two of these resting-places.

Another death had taken place in this same year that caused a great deal of unhappiness afterwards,

Banishment
of the Jews.
1290.

Death of
Queen
Eleanor.
1290.

although it was only that of a little girl three years old. This child, who was an orphan, and called the Maid of Norway, was the rightful Queen of Scotland; and Edward had made an agreement with her guardians that she should marry his little boy. But on her voyage from her home in Norway the infant Queen died, and no one was left with an undisputed claim to reign over Scotland.

Thirteen different men came forward, all in some distant way related to the last king, and laid claim to his empty throne. Edward maintained that he had a right to decide the question, because (so he said) the English sovereigns from very old times had had a lordship over the Scotch. This lordship claimed was not a direct government of the country, for the Scotch had always had kings of their own; but some of the Saxon kings had given part of the North of England to the Scotch kings on condition that they would do homage for these counties, and the Scots had once, in the days of Edward the Elder, owned the English king of their own free will as their "father and lord." Ever since that the English kings had been disposed to assume the overlordship of Scotland. The Scotch had never, except in the days of Edward the Elder, been willing to allow the claim, and some disputes had arisen on that account, but lately the two countries had become better friends.

The Scotch now agreed that Edward should decide this question of the succession. Edward declared that a certain man, called John Balliol, was the rightful heir to the throne. He was, therefore, made King; and as he was a weak-minded man, it was not very difficult to persuade him to acknowledge Edward as his lord.

John Balliol soon discovered that it is impossible to serve two masters. Edward required one thing from him, and the Scotch wished for just the oppo-

site. To escape from his difficulty he determined to join the French King, who was trying very hard to get up a quarrel with Edward. On this, Edward ordered the Scotch nobles to serve him in a war against France, and John Balliol to meet him in a Parliament held at Newcastle-on-Tyne in 1295. Neither Balliol nor the nobles attended to Edward's commands; indeed, at Berwick the people were so enraged at his pretensions that there was a riot, and the English merchants were either killed or driven out of the town.

Edward was now quite determined to fight against the Scotch, and he "thanked heaven that his enemies had been the first to shed blood." He marched, in 1296, with his army up to the town of Berwick. The people within ^{War against Scotland.} 1296.1 shouted out defiance against him; but, notwithstanding, he took the town, and eight thousand of the townsmen were killed in the streets. At last a number of priests prayed him to have mercy on the town, and suddenly becoming aware of the cruelty of his actions he burst into tears, and bade his soldiers stay the slaughter.

Soon after this Balliol sent to Edward saying that he no longer owned him as his lord. "Has the fool done this folly?" cried the English King; "if he will not come to us we will go to him." The Scotch were alarmed at this threat, and Edinburgh, Stirling, and Perth, not wishing to be destroyed like Berwick, opened their gates to Edward, who took Balliol prisoner, and declared himself King of Scotland. As a trophy he carried away to England, from a place called Scone, the old block of stone ^{The stone of Scone.} on which all the kings of Scotland had been crowned. This stone the people thought of great value, because they believed it to be the same that Jacob had used for a pillow when he dreamed of the angels ascending and descending between heaven and earth. Edward had a beautiful seat made over this stone, and upon it the kings of England still are crowned. It stands in Westminster Abbey.

Edward next tried to set Scotland in order, and to give the people the same laws as the English. The Scotch, of course, preferred their own ways, and when a private gentleman, called William Wallace, 1297. offered to go on with the war against Edward, now that Balliol was in prison, many people were very glad to follow him, and he gathered a large army together near Stirling Bridge, in September 1297. The English, who were not very anxious to fight, tried to come to some agreement with Wallace, but he only made answer to them, "We have come, not for the blessings of peace, but to fight, that we may avenge ourselves and free our country. Let the English come up as they like, they will find us ready to beard them." Wallace's courage won the day, the English were for the time overcome, and Wallace took the title of "Guardian of the Kingdom."

Edward, on hearing of this, marched again into Scotland with a larger army than he ever had before; and though Wallace was one of the best soldiers of the time, Edward, who was a still greater man in war, was able to defeat him, and after a battle at Falkirk, in July 1298, Wallace was obliged to fly for his life, followed by a few of his men.

For some time Wallace hid himself in safety among his native moors and fens; but at length, in 1305, he was betrayed into Edward's hands, taken to London, and there tried and put to death as a traitor. This is the worst blot on Edward's character. Wallace was a brave man, and the Scotch still look on him as one of their greatest heroes.

But another man soon arose to take the place of Wallace in fighting for the freedom of Scotland. His name was Robert Bruce; he was a grandson of one of those men who had put in a claim for the Scotch crown when the Maid of Norway died. Robert Bruce had a friend called John Comyn the Red, and both of these men were

in Edward's service. After Balliol and Wallace had been got rid of, Bruce, Comyn, and the Bishop of St. Andrew's bound themselves together by a secret compact always to help each other in difficulties. But when, a little time after, Bruce proposed to Comyn that they should rise against the rule of the King of England, Comyn not only refused, but betrayed Bruce to Edward.

Edward was roused by this to great anger, and Bruce had to fly for his life into Scotland. When there, he asked Comyn to meet him at the Grey Friar's Church, in Dumfries, think-
ing, perhaps, to win him back to his side.

Murder of
Comyn.

How it was no one knows, but the two men quarrelled in the church, and Bruce, in a sudden passion, stabbed Comyn where he stood. No sooner had he done the deed than he was very sorry, and running in great horror from the church, he said to his friends, "I doubt I have slain Comyn." "I'll mak sikker" (sure), said a man standing by, and hastily rushing into the church he killed Comyn, who was not quite dead before.

The people of Scotland, who were quite tired of having the English for their masters, now gathered round Bruce, and crowned him as their king, in March, 1306. "Thou art hence-
forth Queen of Scotland and I King,"
he said to his wife Mary; but she only answered sadly, "I fear we are but playing at royalty, like children in their games."

Coronation
of Bruce.
1306.

When Edward heard of Comyn's murder he was terribly enraged. He had been hoping for peace, and now Scotland seemed in as bad a state as ever. He was getting an old man, and his son, who had been born in Wales, was grown up. He was about to be knighted, as was the custom with all young princes and nobles at that time, and the King had invited a great many young gentlemen to be made knights on the same occasion. He undertook to pay their expenses and had a grand feast prepared for them. Many accepted the King's invitation, and

while they all sat at table a number of singers entered the room, and asked if the new-made knights would not take some noble vow, by which they might remember the day.

Then Edward spoke, and swore upon two swans, which were placed upon one of the dishes, to take vengeance upon Bruce for the murder of Comyn. Young Prince Edward also vowed that he would not sleep two nights in one bed until he reached Scotland, where he would help his father to fulfil his oath; and all the others joined in some similar promise.

And now, with another great army, Edward again marched northwards. Meanwhile one of his captains, Aymer de Valence, had taken and put to death Bruce's brother Nigel, and many other Scotch nobles; so that Bruce became anxious to make peace with the young Prince Edward.

When the King heard of this he exclaimed, with passion, "Who is so bold as to treat with traitors without our knowledge?" And although he had been sick in bed at the time, he once more began his march. This, however, was too much for his strength; he soon found that he could not go two miles a day, and at Burgh-on-the-Sands, in Cumberland, he died on the 7th of July, 1307. He had known he could not live very long, and had bade his son continue the war after his death. With the strange fancy of a sick man, he had also ordered that his dead body should be carried before that army which in life he had so often led. His son disobeyed both these commands. The body was conveyed to Westminster, where it was laid by the side of the good Queen Eleanor. The Earl of Pembroke was sent to Scotland, while Edward himself made his way once more towards the south.

The system which Simon de Montfort had begun of calling to Parliament people both from the towns and from the counties was continued by Edward, who saw what a good plan it was. He said "that which concerned all ought to be approved of by all;" and though in the

Death of
Edward I.
1307.

The British
Parliament.

first part of his reign he kept to the old plan of having only his nobles to help him in making the laws, in 1295 he summoned a Parliament, to which came knights chosen by the shires and also men elected by the towns. This has been the pattern on which our Parliaments have been formed ever since. Our kings now do not rule according to their own will in England, but have a great many men to help them. Some are called Lords and some Commons, and these two classes of men make the laws of the land, and look after all the business which has to be done with other countries. The peers or lords are great nobles, whose right to make our laws has come down from father to son. They, as well as the bishops and archbishops, all meet together in a house at Westminster, called the House of Lords or Peers. In the same building is the House of Commons, and the men who meet there are not great nobles, but simply gentlemen who have been chosen by their fellow-townsmen or men of the same county to go and work for them. Because they represent the common people they are called the Commons.

When a new law is wanted, the members of one House talk it over first, and write down what they wish done. This writing is called a *bill*, and when a bill has passed either House it is sent to the other. The members of the other House, in their turn, discuss the matter, and if they think the bill a good one, agree to it, and send it up to the King or Queen, who signs it; and it thenceforth becomes a law of the kingdom, which no one can break without being punished. This is called passing an Act of Parliament. Of course this way of ruling England was not brought in all at once. At first the King had all, or nearly all, the power himself; then the barons tried to get it away from him, and at last it ended in the whole country helping the King to rule the land. So England is now called a "Limited Monarchy," because the Parliament limits, or makes less, the power of the monarch or king.

Some of these changes were brought about in

Edward's time. Then, however, there were not only Lords and Commons as there are now, but three classes of people who helped to make the laws. These three classes were called the "Three Estates of the Realm," and consisted of the Clergy, the Lords, and the Commons. After a time the lesser clergymen found they did not care for the trouble of going to Parliament, so the Bishops and Archbishops were counted with the Lords, and there came to be only two Houses, one of Lords and one of Commons. The separation of the two Houses, however, did not take place so early as the times of which we have been speaking in this chapter.

In the Parliaments summoned by Edward a great many very good laws were passed; indeed, Edward was a true English king, and sincerely desired to leave the nation better than he found it. Still he liked his subjects to trust him entirely, and when they asked him to sign the Charter which had been given in the reign of his grandfather John, he was very angry to think that they did not believe his word. Besides, when he was in need of money to carry on his wars he tried to tax the people without their consent. Against this, however, two of his great nobles, Bohun and Bigod, made a firm stand, and persuaded him to confirm the Charter, and to make a law that no King of England should ever be able to tax the English people "without the common assent of the realm."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

1. Where was Edward when his father died? What attempt was made against his life in 1272? Give the story of his wife's devotion.—2. Give the dates of Edward's arrival in England, and of his coronation. Describe his character.—3. Give an account of the Welsh people at this time.—4. What did the King desire Llewellyn Prince of Wales to do, and with what result?—5. Who objected to the agreement between Edward and Llewellyn? and why? What did the brothers do in 1282?—6. When and where was Llewellyn defeated and slain? In mockery of what prophecy was his head crowned with a paper crown?—7. To whom did Edward give the title of Prince of Wales?—8. What did Edward do in order to induce his subjects to give him money?—9. What loss befell Edward in 1290? How did he show his devotion to his wife's memory?

10.—Who was the Maid of Norway, and how did her death affect the Scotch people?—11. On what did Edward base his claim to the Overlordship of Scotland? Whom did he choose as King of that country?—12. What gave rise to Edward's quarrel with Balliol?—13. How did Edward act towards the people of Berwick? What message did Balliol send him? Give an account of the remaining events of the war.—14. Who came forward as a leader of the Scotch? Give the dates of the battles of Stirling and Falkirk, and say who were the conquerors in each. What was the fate of William Wallace?—15. Give an account of Robert Bruce, and relate what

led to the murder of Comyn. How did Edward act when he heard of this deed?—16. Where and when did Edward die? What were his last commands, and how did his son obey them?—17. How far did Edward continue the parliamentary system begun by Simon de Montfort? Whom did he summon to his Parliament in 1295? How is an Act of Parliament passed? What is the Government of England called, and why?—18. Of what did the three estates of the realm originally consist?—19. Why did Edward object to signing the Great Charter? Who made a stand, and what did they persuade him to do?

CHAPTER XX.

EDWARD II. OF CARNARVON. 1307—1327.

EDWARD I. had four sons. The three elder died when they were very young, and the fourth, who was called Edward after his father, lost his mother when he was only six years old. This was a sad thing for the boy, as his mother might have trained him, had she lived, to be a better man than he was.

His father was anxious that his son should be a good ruler. He had him well taught, and often told him of his faults, but being always a very busy man, he could not spare much of his time to look after the young prince, who grew up vain and idle, caring more for hunting and feasting than for war or business.

When Edward was a child his father had chosen as a playfellow for him a boy named Piers Gaveston, the son of a gentleman of Gascony. But as the lads grew up the King saw that

Piers was not a good companion for his son, and sent him out of the country. The younger Edward did not see that his father acted for his good; he hated to be crossed in his wishes, and began to dislike his father's rule, and to look upon his father's friends "as spies and checks upon his pleasures."

As soon, therefore, as Edward I. was dead, the young King determined to have his own way; and setting aside his father's commands, he left the war in Scotland in other hands, and invited his friend Gaveston to return to England, giving him, soon after, the title of Earl of Cornwall. Edward next

dismissed some of his father's most trusted servants, and then asked for money to pay for the late King's funeral. The nobles were angry, and said that Gaveston had got hold of the royal treasure; still they gave Edward I. a costly funeral, and at this time brought no complaint against their present King.

Edward next proposed to leave the country in the charge of Gaveston, while he went to France to marry Isabella, the daughter of the French King. This caused a great deal more jealousy. At first Gaveston tried to make friends with the nobles, many of whom were related to the King; but as soon as he felt himself safe, he became so proud that their jealousy was turned to hatred. He was fond of giving nicknames. One noble, the Earl of Pembroke, he called the Jew; to another, the Earl of Warwick, he gave the name of the Black Dog; while the Earl of Lancaster, the King's cousin, he nicknamed the Actor.

If the King could have reigned without a Parliament he might have kept his favourite by his side in safety. But without a Parliament he could get little money; and when he called his councillors together the first thing they required was that he should send away Gaveston. Edward was obliged to agree, but showed his confidence in him by appointing him ruler of Ireland. This instance should be remembered; for it foreshadows the modern system of government, according to which Parliament insists on having advisers in whom it has confidence around the monarch. Hundreds of years, however, had yet to pass before this system was firmly established.

The next proceedings of the Parliament (1308) show the growth of another important principle of the British Constitution. Before any money was granted to the King he was required to give up several irregularities and abuses in his mode of government, and to return to the rules of the Great Charter. Such cases established the practice that the redress of grievances must come first, and the supply of money by taxes

Compulsory
dismissal of
Gaveston.

Parliament
and
grievances.

afterwards. It is easy to understand how such a practice, when it was enforced, gave Parliament a great advantage in resisting sovereigns disposed to play the tyrant. After Edward had yielded to the demands of this Parliament and got his money, he succeeded in persuading the nobles to allow Gaveston's return provided that the favourite should behave himself properly.

His behaviour, however, did not long satisfy the barons. The old abuses began again, and the great nobles resolved to take the government into their own hands. In 1310 they wrung a consent from the King to the appointment of a grand committee called the "Lords' Ordainers." These ordainers required amongst other things that Parliament should be summoned once a year, that the consent of the barons should be obtained before any war was begun, and that Gaveston should be sent away once more. The poor King, whose weakness may be pitied though his faults must be condemned, parted from his friend with tears. But within a year Gaveston was back again, insolent and defiant as ever.

The barons were very angry, and took up arms against the King. Gaveston having narrowly escaped falling into their hands at Newcastle fled to Scarborough Castle, where he was taken prisoner in May 1312. The Earl of Pembroke took charge of Gaveston, and would have kept him in safety; but the Earl of Warwick carried him off without Pembroke's knowledge, having sworn that Gaveston should "feel the teeth of the Black Dog." He was tried in the presence of the Earl of Lancaster, and condemned to death. In great terror he now began to pray for pity from "his gentle lord," but no pity was shown, and he was beheaded on Blacklow Hill, near Warwick.

The King was deeply grieved and angry at this deed; but having cast away his father's friends he had no one to whom to turn in his distress. His cousin, the Earl of Lancaster, hated him, and tried to make his people rebel. In Scotland, too, the

Gaveston's
death.

1312.

English arms had been faring very badly. Robert Bruce had won back from England one town after another; and at last Edward heard that Stirling, which was still left, would soon be retaken by the Scotch. He therefore determined to march northwards, and, if possible, save the town.

*Affairs in
Scotland.*

But even at a time of such need Edward's cousin Lancaster tried to thwart him. He told the King he must not go to war without the consent of his barons. Edward answered truly that there was no time then to call a Parliament to consult them. Upon which Lancaster refused to give him any help, and all the nobles who were on Lancaster's side stayed at home, while the King, with Pembroke, Gloucester, and as many armed men as he could muster, marched to fight the Scotch.

*Edward
marches
without the
barons'
consent.*

Near Stirling there was a little brook called the Bannockburn, where Bruce, who expected Edward, was waiting with his army. He had arranged his men a little to the south-east of Stirling Castle, not far from this brook. The ground there was very marshy, and in it Bruce had dug a number of small pits and stuck stakes into them, to entrap the horses of his foes when the fight began.

*Battle of
Bannock-
burn.
1314.*

When the day came, the 24th of June, 1314, the Scotch army first knelt to pray, and Edward, seeing them on their knees, cried aloud, "See, they beg pardon." "Yes, sire," returned a Scotch noble; "but of heaven, not of you." At first it seemed as if the Scotch would be conquered; but whilst the battle was still doubtful, the English thought they saw fresh soldiers coming against them, waving their flags in the air. This was a mistake, for the men they saw were not soldiers, but had only followed Bruce's army in order to see the fight. The English, however, were so alarmed that they began to retreat, and in their flight their horses tumbled into the little pits Bruce had dug, and were lamed or killed by the

stakes set upright in them. The King escaped with the Earl of Pembroke to Dunbar, and from thence sailed to Berwick; but his best friend, the Earl of Gloucester, and many of his knights had been slain.

By this battle the Scotch again recovered their freedom, and although there was constant fighting between the two countries for many years, Scotland was never again conquered by England.

Scottish
independ-
ence
secured.

And now began a terrible time for the English people. In 1314 and 1316 there was a fearful famine, and the poor found it very hard to get bread enough to eat. This famine brought with it a great deal of sickness. The northern counties of England were much distressed by the Scots, who often crossed the border and laid waste the country round. The people, too, had lost all faith in their King, for he had failed in everything he had undertaken. With no strong hand to guide them, they fixed their hopes on the Earl of Lancaster, who was quite unworthy of their trust. Lancaster's chief desire was to oppose the King, and his example was followed by others; so that the nobles, instead of trying to mend matters, took to quarrelling amongst themselves.

Scarcity.
1314—
1316.

The King meanwhile could not be happy without intimate friends; and Gloucester's brother-in-law, Hugh Despenser, and his father now won as much favour as Gaveston had done, and were as much disliked by the nobles as Edward's former favourite had been.

The
Despensers.

Discontent soon broke out among the nobles. A quarrel arose between the Queen Isabella and a certain Lady Badlesmere. Lady Badlesmere refused to allow the Queen to enter her castle; and Edward, who was very much angered at the affront, made up his mind to take up arms against his nobles. Earl Thomas of Lancaster at once collected an army of his friends to fight against Edward, but was taken prisoner at a place called Borough Bridge, March 16, 1322.

Capture and
death of
Lancaster.

The King had not forgotten how Lancaster had caused the death of his friend Gaveston, and took his revenge now by causing the Earl to be brought to trial and beheaded. This aroused great anger among the people, who at once began to look upon Lancaster as a saint and martyr, and to declare that miracles were wrought at his tomb.

Thus the King's victory only caused him and his favourites to be more disliked than ever. Even his own wife grew jealous of them, and said that she was afraid of the influence they had over her husband.

In 1324 Charles IV., King of France, had a dispute with Edward; and, as the Despencers did not like the King to leave the country because they knew he was their only defence against the hatred of the nation, Queen Isabella was sent over to France in 1325 to settle the matter. Dispute with France. 1324.

Isabella left the King in a very friendly way, but before long she asked her husband if she might have her little boy with her in France. Edward consented, and sent over the child, who was then twelve years old. This was part of a plot the Queen had made, and which she carried out with the aid of a man named Roger Mortimer. Her plan was to collect money and soldiers, return with them to England, make war on the King, and persuade the English people to crown her boy Edward in his stead. Queen Isabella deserts Edward.

If the King had not lost the love of his subjects this plot must have come to nought. As it was, when Isabella, with the Prince and Mortimer, landed in England in 1326, saying they had come to avenge the blood of Earl Thomas, and to rid the land of the Despencers, no one took the King's side; and after he had tried in vain to persuade the citizens of London to join him, he was obliged to fly for shelter to the home of his favourites. Her scheme.

Thither he was followed by Isabella. The elder Despenser was caught at Bristol and hanged at once; while not long after the King was taken prisoner,

as well as his other favourite. The latter was also hanged, and the Queen's party were determined now to get rid of the King as well. They guarded him securely, while Isabella called a Parliament, in which it was decided that Edward was no longer fit to reign, and that his son should be crowned in his stead. The crowd in Westminster Hall shouted assent to this; but the Queen shed tears and pretended to be very sorry. Her son thought her grief was real, and said he would never take the crown against the will of his father. Then the barons forced the King to declare that he had wrought much harm to the realm, lost Scotland, oppressed the nobles, and broken the oaths he had taken when he was made King. Edward made answer that all the accusations they brought against him were true; that he counted himself no longer worthy to reign, and consented to give his kingdom to his son.

Still Isabella and Mortimer feared they were not safe so long as the King lived; and having kept him for some time a prisoner, taking him from one castle to another, Mortimer caused him to be secretly murdered, September 21st, 1327.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What was the character of Edward II.? Whom had Edward I. chosen as his son's companion? What was his character?—2. What did Edward do as soon as his father was dead? How did his favourite friend enrage the nobles?—3. What compelled Edward to send his favourite away? Why should this instance be remembered? What did the next proceedings in Parliament show?—4. To what did the barons compel Edward to consent in 1310?—5. What effect had the return of the King's favourite on the barons? Who caused him to be put to death?—6. What was happening in Scotland at this time? How did Edward's cousin Lancaster try to thwart him in his trouble?—7. Describe the battle of Bannockburn, and give the date.—8. Under what miseries did the English suffer during these years?—9. Who were the King's later favourites? What was their character?—10. What incident roused Edward to make war on his barons? Who was taken prisoner and executed?—11. Name the place and give the date of the execution, and say what feeling this deed aroused among the people.—12. Who had a dispute with Edward in 1324? Why did he not go himself to settle it? Whom did he send?—13. What plot did Isabella form against her husband, and with whose aid was it carried out?—14. What was the fate of the King's helpers?—15. How was the King himself treated? Give the date of his death.

CHAPTER XXI.

EDWARD III. OF WINDSOR. 1327—1377.

ISABELLA and Mortimer at first took care to let everybody think that their coming was a great benefit to the English people, and as Edward was too young to reign, they secured for themselves the management of the kingdom. But they were soon tired of even the appearance of goodness, and acted so proudly towards every one that the nation was heartily weary of their rule.

Government
by Isabella
and
Mortimer.

The Scots had invaded England very soon after the young Edward was made King, and he went northward with an army to fight against them. He found the Scots more difficult to deal with than he had fancied ; for they were a rough, hardy race, capable of great activity. They rode upon little shaggy ponies, and for meat would kill and cook any stray cattle that they came across. But their chief food consisted of oatmeal, which they carried in bags round their necks and baked for themselves on small flat stones. Such an army could move about with great speed, and stood in no fear of starvation, however much the country might be wasted.

Scottish
inroad.

Edward was very anxious for a battle ; but the Scots were too cautious to meet him in fair and open fight, and, after several failures, he was obliged to allow the invaders to return safely home.

Isabella and Mortimer made peace with the Scots in March, 1328, and gave up all claim to rule over Scotland. This did not at all please the English,

who said that the young King's just right had been sacrificed. Amongst the nobles who sympathised with the general discontent was the Earl of Kent, brother of Edward II., and, therefore, uncle to the young King. Mortimer cherished a special grudge against the Earl, and determined to get rid of him.

**Surrender of
the over-
lordship of
Scotland.
1328.**

With this intention he planned to make Kent believe that Edward II. was still alive. Kent fell into the snare, and began to plot to get the late King back to the throne. Mortimer then had him taken prisoner, tried as a traitor, and beheaded, (1330).

By this time Edward was beginning to feel that he was old enough to rule England himself. In 1328 he had married a very fair and good woman, Philippa of Hainault; and when a little son was born to them he made up his mind to act as a man, and rid himself of Mortimer, who had, he well knew, caused the death of both his father and his uncle.

**Edward III.
assumes the
government.
1330.**

Mortimer soon guessed what was in Edward's mind, and shut himself up with Queen Isabella in Nottingham Castle. Thither he was followed by the King, whose mother, being equally suspicious of her son, would not allow him more than three or four servants, and made him stay in the keep of the castle. The armed men whom he had brought with him were not able to enter, and the Queen always slept with the keys of the fortress under her pillow.

Edward, however, found from the governor of the castle that there was a passage which gave secret entrance from a cave in the rock beneath. In order that all might be put off their guard, he rode away from Nottingham by daylight. In the dead of night he returned, crept with his men along the dark passages, and broke into the very room where Mortimer was. There the latter was seized by Edward and his men, while the Queen, who had heard all, was crying out, "Fair son, fair son, have pity on the gentle Mortimer."

**Capture and
death of
Mortimer.**

Edward sent Mortimer off the next morning to prison in the Tower of London, and, being condemned by the barons, he was, in 1330, executed without being allowed to speak a word in his own defence. Isabella had a large income settled upon her, but she was obliged to keep out of the way at a place called Castle Rising, in Norfolk.

In 1329 Charles IV., King of France, had died; he only left two daughters and no sons. As the French had a law called the Salic Law, which forbade any woman to be queen, ^{Claim to the French throne.} these two girls were at once put aside as unfit to reign. But Edward said that though a woman must not reign herself, her sons might inherit the crown; and as his mother was the last king's sister, he was really the person who ought to be King of France. Thus Edward rested his claim on the fact that through his mother he was grandson to King Philip IV. (the Fair), who died in 1314. But the French held that as Edward's mother could not herself be Queen of France she could not transmit to her son any right to the throne. They crowned instead Philip of Valois, the son of Charles of Valois. This Charles was the son of an earlier king, Philip III. (the Bold), who died in 1285.

Edward would most likely have soon given up his claim, had not Philip provoked him, not only by helping his foes, the Scotch, but also by trying to get away from him the French ^{The "Hundred Years' War."} provinces that had descended to him. This it was that roused Edward to begin this great war with France, since called the Hundred Years' War, because from this time until more than a hundred years after there was no continuous peace between the two countries.

Edward began by showing his own subjects the justice of the war; he then made friends with all the jealous people whose lands were next to Philip's, and persuaded them to promise to help him. Then, when he had as many soldiers and as much money as he thought necessary, he set sail for France on the

12th of July, 1338, taking upon himself the title and coat of arms of the King of France.

At first he could not succeed at all; and in two years returned to England to tell his people that he could not go on with the war unless he had more money given him. Parliament had, however, wisely determined that if they agreed to give the King anything they would, in their turn, make him alter certain laws which they considered very bad. Edward was obliged to do as they wished before he could get the means of returning to France.

As Edward was about to set sail, he heard that Philip had sent a number of ships and men to Sluys in order to prevent his landing. But when his subjects begged him not to incur the danger of going there, he exclaimed, "You are all in a plot against me. I shall go. Those who are afraid may stay at home." And go he did, with a fleet of noble ships.

When they got near Sluys harbour, at the mouth of the river Scheldt, they found the news quite true, and the Frenchmen ready to receive them. Edward placed his strongest ships in the front, and put to sea a little to avoid the sun, which was shining in his eyes. This made the French think that he did not mean to fight; but they soon saw their mistake, for the wind and tide were in Edward's favour as he bore down upon them.

Then began a fierce struggle between the French and the English. The Englishmen, who carried bows and arrows, and were called archers, shot down the sailors on the decks of the French ships, and set the flag of England waving over the colours of the French. And then, to make their victory quite secure, up came another fleet of ships, sent by the northern counties, which caused such fear among the French that numbers, scarce knowing what they did, jumped overboard into the waves, and were drowned. In this manner was gained, in 1340, one of the first great English victories at sea.

Even this did Edward little good, and when he

Sea fight
off Sluys.
1340.

tried to take the town of Tournay he failed. He was obliged to make an agreement with the King of France that neither of them should fight for a year; and then he returned to England for more money. Having got what he wanted he again went to France, but succeeded no better than before.

Truce for
a year.

It was not until August 26, 1346, that the famous battle of Crécy was fought and won. Edward landed in Normandy, and with his army marched through the country towards the town of Calais. Burning and wasting the land as he went, he crossed over the rivers Seine and Somme, while the French followed him with all the haste they could. But when he came into the province of Ponthieu he stopped. "I am now in the lawful inheritance of my lady mother," he said, "and it is my duty to defend it against my enemy."

Battle of
Crécy.
1346.

Near a little village called Crécy was a piece of rising ground, and on it Edward waited for the Frenchmen to come up. Here and there amongst the companies of bowmen small cannon were planted. This was probably the first time such weapons were used in the open field, though they had been before employed to defend castles and walled towns. The King had with him his eldest son, Edward, who was only sixteen, and although the father kept a cheerful face before his men, as soon as he and his son were alone he threw himself on the ground and prayed to God to preserve his honour. When the next day came there was a fearful storm of thunder and lightning, and the battle could not begin until five o'clock in the afternoon. The French had by far the larger number of soldiers, but the English archers, with their bows and arrows, were more than a match for them. Edward watched the battle from a windmill at the top of the hill; and when they sent to tell him that his son was in great danger, and to ask for help, he asked, "Is my son dead or wounded?" "No," was the reply. "Then," returned Edward, "he shall

have no help ; let the boy win his spurs"—that is, let him show himself worthy to be a knight—"and the glory of the day shall be his." Still the French fought on, but at length their King was wounded and obliged to leave the field, though it was not till after dark that all was over. More than 30,000 French were slain, which was about one for every English soldier who fought.

Then Edward went to meet his son, and, folding him in his arms, he cried, "Fair son; continue as you have begun—you have behaved nobly—you have shown yourself worthy of me and of the crown." The young prince, however, replied that all the glory was due to his father.

Among the killed in this battle was John, King of Bohemia. Although he was quite blind, he had asked to be led into the hottest part of the fight, "to have a stroke at England." He wore on his helmet three ostrich feathers, and had for his motto the two German words, "*Ich dien*," which mean in English, "I serve." These feathers Prince Edward took for his own crest, together with the motto, and they have been borne ever since by each of our Princes of Wales.

As soon as the battle was over Edward went on to Calais; and as he foresaw that it would be a long time before he could take the town, he told his men to build little huts round it, to live in during the winter.

Meanwhile the King of France had sent a message to the King of Scotland, telling him how easy it would be for him to do a good deal of mischief to England while Edward and his great army were away. David Bruce took the hint, crossed the border with his army, and began to march towards Durham. But the English were

Battle of
Neville's
Cross.

1346.

not going to let him have all his own way. The great nobles, the clergy, and the common townsmen, met together without his knowledge, and at a place near Durham beat the Scotch completely, and took their

King prisoner, October 17, 1346. An English knight, Sir Ralph Neville, erected a cross on the battle-field, and the spot was known afterwards as Neville's Cross.

This event happened two months after the battle of Crécy, when all Edward's thoughts were bent on taking the French town of Calais. Avoiding an assault, and resolving to conquer it by starvation, he placed soldiers all round it, so that no one could either go out or come in, and thus, of course, the people of Calais were unable to get any new stores of food. It was some time, however, before all the provisions in the town were eaten, and Edward had to wait a whole year before the men in Calais would give it up to him. At last when there was nothing in the place left to eat, and every one was starving, they resolved to submit to Edward's terms, and the governor, Sir John de Vienne, came out of the town and made a sign that he wished to speak with one of the English leaders.

Edward sent one of his bravest knights, Sir Walter de Manney, to hear what he had to say. When the two men met, the Governor told Sir Walter what a sad state the town was in, and that as there was no hope of help he was willing to give it up to Edward, if he would only promise that the brave men, who had defended it so long and suffered so much, should lose neither their lives nor their liberty. Sir Walter de Manney replied that he did not believe the King of England would grant what was asked, as he was very greatly enraged against the people of Calais for giving him so much trouble. Then John de Vienne asked Sir Walter if the brave defence made by the men of Calais ought not to win the respect of any prince, and added that if they had to die they would sell their lives dearly, and that surely it would be to the King's advantage to prevent so much shedding of blood.

Sir Walter saw that the Governor was in the right, and returning to the King begged him to spare the lives of the men of Calais. It is said that Edward,

Siege of
Calais.

Surrender
of Calais.
1347.

who was in a cruel mood, replied that he would not do so unless six of the richest of the townsmen were sent to him, bareheaded and barefooted, with ropes round their necks, and with the keys of the town in their hands; these six should die, and then he would spare the rest.

It was a hard matter for the citizens of Calais to decide which of them should go to Edward. At last a brave man, called Eustace de St. Pierre, stood forth and offered himself; five others quickly followed his example, and, carrying the keys, went out to Edward according to the order which he had given.

When Edward saw them, he commanded that they should immediately be hanged; but his wife, Queen Philippa, struck with pity for these men, fell on her knees, and with tears in her eyes begged her husband not to be so cruel as to put them to death. Then Edward, saying, "Madam, I can refuse you nothing," told her that he would give their lives into her hands. So the Queen took them into her own tent, and after having given them a good meal, made them a present of clothes and money and then let them go back.

After this King Edward took Calais, turned all the people out of the town who had been living in it, and put English men and women there instead. It became a very good place for English trade, and it was not until many years after, in the reign of Queen Mary, that the French were able to get it back again.

The Pope of Rome now tried to persuade the Kings of England and France to make peace, and they agreed upon a truce for a few months.

Seven years' truce. The peace, however, was not broken for seven years, during which time England grew so rich and prosperous that all the nations thought well of her. The nobles took their pleasure and dressed in the richest clothes, trade was good, and the land seemed for a time happy and well-to-do.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. How did Isabella and Mortimer act towards the English?—2. Who invaded England? What did the young King do, and with what success did he meet?—3. With whom did Mortimer make peace in 1328? Was this action pleasing to the people?—4. Against what nobleman had Mortimer an especial grudge? What plot did he make, and how did it succeed?—5. On what did Edward now determine? Relate the incidents of Mortimer's capture; what was his fate? What became of Queen Isabella?—6. Explain clearly the claim of Edward III. to the crown of France, and show why the French did not allow of his right to reign. Whom did the French crown as their King?—7. How was Edward provoked into declaring war with France? What has this war been since called, and why? When did Edward set sail, and what coat of arms did he take?—8. What was Edward's success at first? What did he tell his people

when he returned to England after two years' absence? What had Parliament wisely determined to do?—9. Describe the sea fight off Sluys. What was its effect?—10. Give an account of the battle of Crécy. What king was among the killed in this battle? What was his motto and coat of arms, and by whom have they since been borne?—11. Where did King Edward go when the battle was over? What had been happening in England at the time? Why was the battle near Durham called the battle of Neville's Cross?—12. Describe the siege of Calais, and relate the story of King Edward and the citizens. What was arranged about Calais? How long did it remain in the hands of the English?—13. Who now tried to persuade the Kings of England and France to make peace? To what agreement did they come, and how long did this peace last? What was the state of England at this time?

CHAPTER XXII.

EDWARD III. (*continued*) 1. 327—1377.

WHILE everything seemed to be going well with England, a dreadful trouble arose. A terrible disease, called the Black Death, seized numbers of the people, and a great many of them died. This plague began in Turkey, and by degrees spread over the different countries in Europe until it reached England in 1348. The disease was called the Black Death from the black spots which came out on the people who had it. It was so fatal that few who took it ever got well again; and although we do not know exactly how many died from it, it is thought that it must have carried off quite half the people who were living in England at the time. Every class of people took this fever. The King's young daughter, Joan, who was travelling to Spain to be married, caught it and died; three Archbishops of Canterbury died of it one after the other, besides many of the nobles and clergy.

But those who suffered most from the Black Death were the poor people; so many of them perished that several villages and towns fell into utter decay; and we are told that in Bristol the plague rose to such a degree that the living were scarcely able to bury the dead, while the grass grew several inches high in the High Street. The King had to put off holding Parliament several times on account of the Black Death, and the people were in terror. One great man, called Wycliffe, of whom we shall have more to tell, wrote a book about it called "*The Last Age of the Church.*" In this book he said that he

believed the world would come to an end in the year 1400, and declared that the disease had been sent as a punishment for the sins of the clergy.

An Italian, who lived at that time, says that some people tried to forget it by shutting themselves up in their own houses, eating and drinking of the best, and amusing themselves as well as they could. Many went from one tavern to another making themselves drunk; others carried bunches of flowers about with them wherever they went, fancying that the scent would prevent infection.

Of course when so many of the people were dead it was very difficult to get the corn gathered in and the work of the land done. Everything was dearer, and therefore the workmen ^{Rise of prices.} very naturally thought they ought to be better paid, and asked their masters to give them higher wages. The King and his Parliament, however, thought such demands both unreasonable and insolent. They therefore passed laws, ordering that labourers were not to have more money than they did before the plague.

In consequence of these laws many men left the country places and went to live in towns, where they were better paid; and in the next reign we shall find how they joined together in order to get what they wanted, and how a good deal of trouble was caused thereby.

In 1350 the French King Philip VI. died, and his son John came to the throne. A peace might now have been made between the two countries, if the French would have given Aquitaine ^{War in France.} up to the English. This, however, they ^{1355.} refused to do; and the war began again, though it was now led, not by the King himself, but by his son, who had fought so well at ^{The Black Prince.} Crécy. This prince was called the Black Prince, because he always wore black armour, and he was a great favourite with the English people. He began by burning all the French towns and villages round Bordeaux, and he and his men obtained much *fame and treasure*. After a time he

thought he would turn his steps in another direction ; and, leaving twelve thousand soldiers behind him at Bordeaux, he went along by the river Garonne until he reached the town of Agen.

Then the Black Prince turned towards the left, and began to overrun all this beautiful land. All through the provinces of Querci, Limousin, Auvergne, and Berri they marched, treading down the fields of corn, killing the cattle, and destroying everything of which they could make no use, until at length John, the King of France, crossed the Loire with a very large army, and marched to meet them at the city of Poitiers.

The Black Prince now saw that he had made a great mistake ; for the French came on in large numbers, while he had but few men, and was besides in his enemies' country. "God help us !" he exclaimed ; "it only remains for us to fight bravely." Before the battle began, a clergyman, Cardinal Tallyrand Perigord, did all he could to prevent the bloodshed. "Save my honour and the honour of my army," said the Prince, "and I will listen to fair conditions." The French King sent back word that the Prince and a hundred of his knights must give themselves into his hands as prisoners. This was too much to expect ; and the next day, September 19th, 1356, the battle began. A troop of French horsemen galloped to the attack up a narrow lane. The English archers shot at them from behind the hedges on either side, and the troop retired in confusion. This discouraged their comrades, and though the fight was long, the victory was with the English. The brave archers overcame the French, and the King of France was taken prisoner.

The Black Prince, though he did not care much about the sufferings of common people, and would destroy their fields and homes with very little mercy, was sorry when he saw a king in trouble. Therefore he did not treat John hardly, but showed him great respect, even waiting on him himself ; and when, after they had settled not to fight any more for two years, he took *him in great state* through London, he gave him a

Battle of
Poitiers.
1356.

The French
King a
prisoner.

splendid horse to ride decked out with the richest harness, while he himself sat on a small black pony.

The English had now two royal prisoners—David, King of Scotland, and John, King of France. But in 1360 it was agreed that John should give up to Edward Guienne, Poitou, Sain-^{Peace of} Breigny. 1360. tonge, and Limousin, besides Calais, to be English possessions, entirely independent of the French over-lordship, while Edward should no more claim right to be King of France or Duke of Normandy. In addition to this John was to pay three millions of golden crowns for his liberty. This agreement was called the Treaty of Bretigny.

France, however, had become so poor through all these wars, that John's people were not able to collect all this money; and four young princes, a cousin, a brother, and two sons of the French King, had to be left with Edward until it was paid. These were called *hostages*. After a time they grew tired of remaining so long away from their own land, and asked leave to return. Edward said they might go as far as Calais; but one of the French King's sons broke his word, and went on from there to Paris. John was so ashamed of his having behaved in this way, that he himself returned to England, where he shortly after died (1364).

Edward had now come to the height of his power; and the rest of his reign is full of sadness and failure. The Black Prince, whom every one looked upon as the future King of England, fell sick. He had gone to help Don Pedro, the King of Spain, who had murdered his wife and three of his half brothers, and whose subjects had justly driven him from the throne. The Black Prince spent a great deal of money and ruined his own health by this war; but though he made the Spaniards take Pedro back for their king, the ungrateful man never paid the Prince or his soldiers for all the trouble they had taken. Besides this, his own province of Guienne, which his father had given to him, rebelled against him. One by one, the fair lands that Edward and the Black Prince *had conquered* were taken back by the French,

and the English at home were growing angry and discontented with many things.

Edward's fourth son was called John of Ghent or Gaunt, because he had been born in the town of Ghent in France. He was very anxious to grow rich and great, even at the expense of others. The English people did not like John of Gaunt, but they loved the Black Prince, and his last action won their hearts more than anything he had done before.

The Parliament had many causes of discontent, to which John and his party would not listen. The Black

The "Good
Parliament."
1376.

Prince, on the other hand, heard all their grievances, and made his father alter so many things, that the Parliament which was sitting at that time was called the "Good Parliament." It must have cost him something to do this, for he was then very ill, and in the same year (1376) he died.

As soon as the Black Prince was dead, his brother John changed all the laws which the Good Parliament had made, and got all the power into his own hands. King Edward was so old now that he scarcely looked after anything. In 1377 he also died, and the son of the Black Prince, a boy of ten years old, named Richard, was made King in his stead.

Death of
Edward III.
1377.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What terrible disease seized numbers of the people at this time? How many are said to have died of it? What class of persons suffered most?—2. What effect had it on the nation? What request did the workmen make to their masters, and what laws did the King and Parliament make in consequence?—3. In what year did Philip IV. die, and by whom was he succeeded? On what grounds might a peace have now been made? By whom were the English armies led? Describe this march, naming the provinces through which they went.—4. Give an account of the battle of Poitiers, mentioning the date. Who was taken prisoner in it?—5. To what agreement did the

French and English come at the Treaty of Bretigny?—6. Whom did the French King leave with the English as hostages? How did his son's behaviour compel his return? Give the date of John's death.—7. To whose aid did the Black Prince go, and with what result? What people rebelled against Edward? What was also happening at home?—8. What was the name of Edward's fourth son? How was he generally liked? How did the Black Prince win the hearts of the people? When did he die?—9. What was the Parliament of 1376 called, and why? How did John of Gaunt act after his brother's death? Give the date of Edward's death, and say who succeeded him.

CHAPTER XXIII.

RICHARD II. OF BORDEAUX. 1377—1399.

AT the close of the last chapter we saw that towards the end of Edward III.'s reign the English people were growing very discontented, and their discontent did not cease at his death. Sufferings of the poor. For this there were several causes.

In the earlier days of our history the nobles had a great deal of power, and nearly all the working class were little better than slaves. They could not sell their labour where they chose, but for the most part were confined to one particular village or parish. The lord on whose land they were born owned them as his; they had to follow him to his wars, and do as he ordered, and were called *villains*, or serfs. The evil meaning of the word "villain" in our modern language comes from the contempt with which the old nobles used to speak of their labourers. The word originally meant a husbandman attached to a *villa* or mansion.

But the clergy had spoken much against this slavery; and as the nobles were generally in want of money, the serfs often bought from them their liberty. Thus a happier state of things seemed to be dawning for them, when the great plague, called the Black Death, broke out, as told in the last chapter. So many labourers died that it was very difficult to get the land tilled or any work done. Now, wherever work is plentiful and labourers few, wages naturally rise; because each employer is afraid of offering less money than his neighbours, lest they should get all the workmen and he should get none.

Besides, the serfs said they could not live on the same amount of money as they had before the plague, because everything had become so much dearer. But the nobles thought that if such claims were allowed the trade of the country would be ruined. So in 1350 the Parliament passed laws called the Statutes of Labourers, ordering that every man or woman under seventy, who owned no land, should be compelled to work, without receiving more payment than they had been accustomed to do; and that any man who ran away from his master should be branded on the forehead with a hot iron.

These laws provoked the people to anger; and at the beginning of the reign of Richard II. the discontent grew very bitter. The poor were quite prepared to listen to John Ball, a Kentish priest, who went about preaching that every one ought to be equal, and that it was not right that some should be dressed in velvet, silk, and fur, while others were covered with rags.

It was while the land was in this unsettled state that, in order to defray the expenses of the French war, the Parliament determined, in 1378, to lay a tax on the people called a poll tax, because every one above a certain age had to pay so much a head, or *poll*. Not only was this way of taxing very much disliked, but the collectors of the money were often rough and rude to the people.

Suddenly, in 1381, the whole of the poorer classes in England rose in rebellion. The men of Essex began, and the men of Kent soon followed their example and joined with them. A man from Maidstone, called Wat Tyler, was made leader, and John Ball preached them a sermon. The two following lines were repeated everywhere as a summary of his teaching:—

“ When Adam delved and Eve span
Who was then the gentleman ? ”

The mob marched along, setting free the prisoners

from both Canterbury and Maidstone gaols. When they came to London the people would not shut the gates, but let them into the city. Next they forced open Newgate prison, and burnt the Duke of Lancaster's palace. To every one they met they said, "With whom holdest thou?" If the answer was, "With King Richard and the Commons," the rioters let them go, but if it were to a different purpose they were immediately put to death.

Richard was at this time sixteen years old, and had had very little to do with the government of the country; but as his uncles were away, he was now obliged to act for himself. He Richard and the rioters. therefore sent to the rioters, who were gathered together on Tower Hill, saying he would meet them at Mile End.

Thither he rode, and with him only a few men. When he came to Mile End, he saw that he was surrounded by sixty thousand people. "Good people!" cried Richard, "I am your king and lord. What will ye?" They answered, "First, that there should be no more slavery; secondly, that they should pay no more than fourpence an acre for their land; thirdly, that they should be free to buy and sell in all fairs and markets, and be pardoned for all past offences." The King said they should have what they wanted.

Meanwhile others of the rioters had entered the Tower, rushed into the private rooms of the King's mother, who was very much frightened at their behaviour, and killed the Archbishop of Canterbury, whose head they struck off and carried about on a pole. The King and the princes then escaped to the Royal Wardrobe, a house near Blackfriars, and the next day met the rioters at Smithfield. Wat Tyler was at their head, and stopped his band of men when he saw the King. But the Lord Mayor, seeing him lay hands on the reins of the King's horse, thought he might do some harm to Richard, and instantly struck him down with his dagger, while another man quickly put an end to his life. The

rioters at once began to make a great outcry, exclaiming, "Kill, kill, they have slain our captain!" But the young King rode boldly up, saying, "What do you need? Tyler was a traitor—I am your King and captain—follow me." At the same time he saved them from a number of men-at-arms who had been sent out to stop the riot. He then led them in procession to Tower Hill, and afterwards told them to go home and depend on his protection.

Now that Wat Tyler was dead and the King had promised to do what the rioters wished, it did not take very long to put down the rebellion. Parliament, however, showed very little pity towards the rebels, and great numbers of them were put to death. The landowners refused to give the serfs their freedom at that time, although Richard wished it. Still the rising did good in the end; for by degrees the nobles gave the labourers more liberty, and the serfs became in course of time free English working men.

It was expected that after showing so much spirit Richard would henceforth rule the country without interference from his uncles, the Dukes of Lancaster and Gloucester, who were not at all popular. But the young King had been brought up in so much luxury that he had become idle, and though he tried sometimes to shake himself free from their rule, he found he could not do so. We need not, therefore, wonder that Richard should make friends of his own, and these friends were much disliked by his uncles, especially by Thomas, Duke of Gloucester, and his party, who, in 1387, managed to get altogether the upper hand. The Duke brought to trial several nobles who were favourites of the King, condemning two of them to death and sending the rest out of the country. Richard was unable to help this at the time, but in 1388 he determined to make an effort, and at a great council he asked his uncle to tell him how old he was. Gloucester replied that he was two-and-twenty. "Then," replied Richard, "I am certainly old enough

to manage ~~my~~ own concerns. I have been longer under the control of tutors than any ward in my kingdom. Thanks, my lords, for your past services, but I do not require them any longer."

He then took the government into his own ^{His} hands, and for eight years ruled England well, neither taxing the people too heavily, nor trying to take to himself more power than was just. ^{dismissal.}

But in 1394 his wife, Anne of Bohemia, who was much loved by everybody, died; and two years after he married Isabel, the daughter of Charles VI., King of France, a little girl ^{The King's second marriage.} only eight years old. From this time a ^{1396.} change was seen in the King. The little French bride brought over with her a number of foreign ladies and priests, who were not at all liked by the English; and Richard began to let every one see that he wanted to be what is ^{Change in Richard's conduct.} called an *absolute* king, that is, a king whom neither nobles nor Parliament could keep in check, whose will alone was to be the law of the land.

For this object he brought to trial in 1397 those lords who nine years before had acted against his friends. There were several of them, but the chief were the Earl of Warwick, who was condemned to lose his head; Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury, who was sent out of the country; and the Duke of Gloucester, the King's uncle, whose sentence was that he was to be imprisoned for life in Calais.

Soon afterwards news came that the Duke of Gloucester was dead, and it was thought that Richard had caused him to be murdered. Of this, however, there is no actual proof.

Richard next called a Parliament at Shrewsbury, which sat only three days, but consented during that time to everything he wished. All his friends were raised to high honours, and a ^{The Parliament of Shrewsbury.} large sum of money was granted to him ^{1398.} for life, to be obtained by a tax on wool and leather. By doing this the Parliament gave

everything into the King's hands, because, as we have seen, the giving or withholding of money was the one great check it had always had over the will of the kings.

The Parliament ended by giving up all its power to eighteen members chosen from among themselves, all of whom the King believed to be entirely devoted to him.

Richard had thus gained his wish of being an absolute king, but by so doing he brought on himself ruin and death. John of Gaunt had a son, Henry, Duke of Hereford, who was a very popular man, and not well affected towards the King. In 1398 he and another nobleman, the Duke of Norfolk, who also belonged to the party opposed to Richard, had a quarrel, and in the dispute accused each other of being traitors to the King.

News of this circumstance was brought to Richard, who ordered Henry of Hereford to tell him what Norfolk had said. After this the two nobles met in the King's presence, where each declared the other to be a liar. To end the quarrel it was decided that both men should meet at Coventry, and there settle the matter by trial of battle.

The day came, and a number of people gathered together to see the fight; but just as the two angry men were about to begin, the King forbade the trial, and took the matter into his own hands. Both men, he said, were to leave England; Henry was not to return for ten years, and Norfolk was to be banished for life.

Not long after these two nobles had left England, John of Gaunt, Henry's father, died, and Richard took all his lands for himself. The King then went to Ireland, leaving his uncle, Edmund of Langley, the Duke of York, to look after the business of the land while he was away.

When Henry heard of this he made up his mind to go home and claim his father's lands. He had

been banished, he said, as Duke of Hereford, but he was that no longer, for, owing to his father's death, he was Duke of Lancaster, and as Duke of Lancaster he would return to England and claim his rights.

On the 4th of July, 1399, he landed with only forty men at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire, a place that has since been washed away by the sea. Here he was soon joined by the two great Earls of Westmoreland and Northumberland, who brought with them all their men; and by the time he had marched through England to St. Albans his followers had increased to the number of sixty thousand.

Henry of
Hereford at
Ravenspur.
1399.

He stayed in London a little time to win the friendship of the Londoners, and then turned with his army towards the west of England. At Berkeley Castle he met his uncle, the Duke of York, to whom the care of the kingdom had been entrusted by Richard. However, he, too, was persuaded to join Henry, and opened to him the gates of Bristol Castle, while three of Richard's chief favourites, Bushy, Bagot, and Green, were tried and beheaded.

Henry had been in England a whole fortnight before the news of his landing was brought to Richard; and the King at once crossed to Wales, sending word first for an army to be collected there, with which he could meet his cousin.

Richard in
Wales.

But though a number of men were soon gathered together, two more weeks went by before Richard could reach them; and by that time these men had grown so tired of waiting that they nearly all had dispersed, some to their homes, some to join Henry.

When Richard landed and saw how very few were on his side, he knew that all was over with him, and, leaving the shelter of Conway Castle, agreed to give himself up to Henry. He was invited to a conference at Flint. When the cousins met, Henry knelt to Richard cap in hand. Richard said to him, "Fair cousin of Lancaster, you

Surrender
of Richard.
1399.

are right welcome." "I am come before my time," returned Henry, "but I will show you the reason. Your people complain that for the space of two-and-twenty years you have ruled them hardly, but if it please God I will help you to govern better." "Fair cousin," replied Richard, "if it pleaseth you it pleaseth us well."

It was Henry's design to make Richard give up the crown to him; so he compelled him to sign a paper owning he was not worthy to reign any longer, and stating that, if it were in his power to choose, he would name Henry, Duke of Lancaster, to be King instead of him.

A Parliament was then called in Richard's name, while Richard himself was sent to the Tower of London. When the Parliament assembled

Deposition
of the King.

a throne was prepared, covered with a cloth of gold; but it remained empty. Then the paper Richard had signed was read, and after that another, recalling every wrong and foolish act which he had done during the whole of his reign, from his injustice to his cousin even to the rash words he had used sometimes when he said that the life, lands, and goods of every one lay at his royal will.

Then the Parliament declared that these charges were enough to justify them in pronouncing that Richard was no longer worthy to reign; and therefore they took from him all royal dignity and honour.

Whereon Henry rose and said he claimed the throne, as being descended through his mother from Henry III. It might seem a nearer claim that he was grandson of Edward III. through John of Gaunt, that monarch's fourth son. But, as will be seen in the next chapter, there was in existence an heir of Edward's *third* son, whose title was obviously better. Henry, however, did not stand on such arguments. He urged pretty plainly the right of conquest. He was actual lord of the land. He declared he had been sent by God to recover his rights when the land was being undone by bad

Election of
Henry IV.

government and by the setting aside of good laws. To this the whole assembly gave consent; so Henry was chosen to be King instead of Richard, and took his seat on the empty throne.

The facts above related should be very carefully borne in mind, as they mark a step in the growth of our government. In this instance we see one king deposed and another put in his place by authority of Parliament. Something similar to this had happened when Stephen was elected king; but in his day there was no Parliament such as existed in Richard's reign.

In the next chapter we shall learn something of the men who at this time began to protest against the abuses of the Roman Church, and against the spiritual rule of the Pope over England. ^{"Præmunire."} Here it would be well to remember that in 1393. 1393 the Parliament passed a law forbidding any one to bring into this country letters from the Pope condemning the King or nation. This law or statute is called *præmunire*. It is so called because the writ or summons ordered to be sent to any man who brought in such a letter from the Pope began with that Latin word.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Explain the causes for the discontent among the working classes at the end of the reign of Edward III.
2. What was the poll tax, and why was it levied by Parliament?—3. By whom was the rebellion headed? Who was John Ball? What two lines give a summary of his teaching?—4. Describe the course taken by the mob. How did the King quell the riot? How were the rioters treated? What did the serfs become in time?—5. Who ruled the country at this time? What did Thomas, Duke of Gloucester, and his party do in 1397? How did the King free himself from their control in the following year? For how many years did he rule well?—6. Give the name of Richard's first wife. When did she die, and what princess did he next marry? What change took place in the King from this time?—7. Give the names of the persons brought to trial by Richard in 1397. What were their sentences? What became of the Duke of Gloucester?

CHAPTER XXIV.

HENRY IV., SURNAMED BOLINGBROKE. 1399—1413.

ALTHOUGH Henry had succeeded in getting the throne away from Richard, he soon found that he could not keep it without a great deal of difficulty. Though no one appears to have spoken for the last King at the time, after he had fallen many were willing to fight in his cause, and Henry's reign was full of troubles.

At first Richard had been placed as a prisoner in the Tower of London; but afterwards he was taken away to Pomfret (Pontefract). A number of his friends, however, thought they would try to set him free again, and make Henry a prisoner instead. This plot might have succeeded if Henry had not been told of it by one of the men concerned. Richard's friends were overcome, and several of them were put to death.

Henry's next trouble was caused by the King of France, whose daughter had been married to Richard, and who on that account would not acknowledge Henry's claim to the throne.

Suddenly, however, Richard disappeared. No one knew what had become of him; and at last Henry was asked by his Council to make known to them if Richard still lived, but if he were dead to grant that he should be shown openly to the people. Soon after this a dead body was brought to London, and for two days lay at St. Paul's, dressed in royal robes, but with the face bare. Afterwards it was taken to Westminster Abbey, where a service was read over it, and it was then

Richard at
Pomfret.

Mystery of
the late
King's fate.

buried at Langley, which had been Richard's favourite home. But the manner of the late King's death still remained a secret, and many different stories were told about it. Some said he had been slain in prison, others that he had been starved to death, or had killed himself. Henry always declared that he had had nothing to do with the matter, nor has it ever yet been proved that he was murdered. Many people did not believe that the body shown at St. Paul's was that of Richard, but said that he had escaped to Scotland, where he had been received by the Scotch King.

This last tale only added to Henry's difficulties; for the Welsh, who had been very fond of Richard, declared they would not have Henry to rule over them; and, led by a man called Owen Glendower, they determined to fight and free themselves from his rule. Welsh
rebellion.

Owen Glendower had been in the service of Richard while he was yet king. He claimed to be descended from Llewellyn, the Prince of Wales who had been killed in the reign of Edward I. Owen
Glendower. He was a bold, daring man, who soon won the liking of his countrymen; and from all sides Welshmen flocked to him until he had quite a large army at his command.

Henry made all haste to put a stop to this movement, and three times within two years he led an army into Wales to conquer the people. Each time, however, he met with no success; for Owen was used to the country, and would hide himself among the hills instead of joining battle, leaving the English to wander about in the cold and wet. It seemed to them, indeed, as if the heavens fought on the Welsh side, for the storms of wind and rain were so violent that once the King's tent was torn from the place where it was fastened, and carried away.

Other enemies of the King were the Scotch, who kept up a constant war on the borders of the two countries. Against them Henry The Percies. sent his friend the Earl of Northumberland, with

his son Sir Harry Hotspur, and his brother the Earl of Worcester. The family name of these men was Percy, and the most famous of them was Harry Hotspur, who got this title because he was always riding hither and thither, so that people said his spur was never cold. It was partly through the help of the Percies that Henry had won England, and they, therefore, looked to be well paid now that he was king. They had, besides, spent money of their own for him in Scotland. But Richard had been so wasteful, and had left everything in such disorder, that Henry was very far from being rich, and could not do for the Percies all they wished; and this made them discontented.

On September 14th, 1402, with the help of their archers, the Percies won a victory over the Scots at Homildon Hill, and took captive a great many of the Scotch nobles. This made them think that Henry ought to be very grateful to them.

Now Henry was not, after Richard, the next heir to Edward III.; for Henry's father, John of Gaunt, had an elder brother, Lionel, Duke of Clarence, whose great-grandson, Edmund Mortimer, the Earl of March, was now about six years old. This little child was carefully guarded by Henry, but no harm was done him. However, an uncle of his, Sir Edmund Mortimer, was Harry Hotspur's brother-in-law, and he had been taken prisoner by Owen Glendower. Hotspur was very anxious that Mortimer should be set free; but the King being only too glad for him to be kept out of the way, forbade that any money should be paid to ransom him. This was a still greater offence to the Percies, who went over to the side of Owen Glendower, and joined with him in a plot to drive Henry from the throne and give the crown back to Richard, if he were alive, or, if he were dead, to make the little Earl of March King of England.

Henry does not seem to have had any idea that

his friends the Percies were thus plotting against him; and he was going to Scotland to meet them, when the news of the plot was brought to him at Burton-upon-Trent. He at once turned to the west, and, bidding his faithful subjects come to his aid, marched to Shrewsbury.

Here, July 21st, 1403, was fought the battle of Shrewsbury, at a place called Hatley Field, near the town. Hotspur's great wish was to make Henry prisoner; but the King did not wear his own armour, while three men, who wore the royal arms in order that they might deceive the enemy, were killed. Hotspur was himself shot through the brain by an arrow. As soon as his death was known his men fled in all directions, so that Henry and his men gained the day. The Earl of Worcester was taken prisoner, and beheaded.

Battle of
Shrewsbury.
1403.

Death of
Hotspur.

When Hotspur's father, who had not been at the battle, heard of the deaths of his brother and son, he went to Henry, telling him that he had nothing to do with the plot, that his son had disobeyed him, and that he was coming with his men to join the King at the time the battle was being fought.

In this way Northumberland made peace for a time. But in 1405 he joined with the Earl of Westmoreland and Scrope, Archbishop of York, in another revolt. These men fixed on the doors of the churches in York papers accusing Henry of having murdered Richard, and also of various other things. This soon brought the King to the North, where he had not much trouble in overcoming the rebels, who at once laid down their arms, leaving their Archbishop in Henry's hands.

Conspiracy
in the
North.
1405.

It would have been much better for Henry had he given the Archbishop his freedom; but, though not naturally cruel, he had been so troubled by these different rebellions that, in his anger, he ordered that he should be beheaded. "The just and true God knows,"

Execution
of Scrope,
Archbishop
of York.

said Scrope, "that I never intended evil against the person of the King, and I pray that my death may not be revenged on him or his friends." Henry, however, could not be shaken in his purpose; and Scrope was put to death. Northumberland fled to Scotland, but was killed in another attempt against Henry.

At last there was peace in England; and Henry sent his eldest son, Harry, into Wales to fight against Glendower, who was owned by the French as prince of that country. Gradually, however, this chieftain's power was broken, although he was never quite conquered. Amidst these storms passed the reign of Henry IV.

In 1405 what was considered a very fortunate event occurred. The heir to the Scotch throne fell into Henry's hands. Robert III., who was King of Scotland at this time, had had two sons. The eldest of them, the Duke of Rothsay, was, on account of his bad conduct, committed to the care of his uncle, the Duke of Albany, and by him secretly imprisoned and starved to death. The King, though much distressed at his son's death, was not strong enough to bring Albany to justice; but fearing that a similar fate might overtake James, his second son, he sent him to be educated in France. On his passage the prince was captured by some Norfolk sailors and taken to Henry, who at once detained him as prisoner, saying in jest, that he knew the French tongue as well as King Charles, and was, therefore, quite able to educate the Scottish prince. James remained in England until he was grown up; but Henry gave him every possible advantage. In the end he became a polished and learned man, and made one of the best kings Scotland had ever known.

Henry was troubled during the last years of his life by a painful disease which, many said, was a judgment of God upon him for the death of Archbishop Scrope. He seems also to have been rather

Capture of
the Scottish
Prince
James.
1405.

jealous of his son Henry, Prince of Wales, who was very popular in the country

It was reported that Madcap Hal, as the Prince was nick-named, lived a wild life among a number of gay companions, and although we cannot be sure that the stories told of him are quite correct, yet they have become so famous that we cannot omit them.

Stories of
Henry,
Prince of
Wales.

One day it is said that a comrade of Prince Harry's was brought up before the Chief Justice for breaking the law. The Prince insisted that the man should be set free. The judge refused; and the Prince in a passion drew his sword to strike the judge, who at once sent him to prison. Henry submitted without resistance; and his father hearing of the affair exclaimed, "Happy is the king who possesses a judge so firm in the discharge of his duty, and a son so willing to yield to the law."

Another tale related of Henry is, that once his father, who was very ill, fainted away; and the Prince, thinking he was dead, carried away the crown, which lay on a cushion by the bed. When the King came to himself he asked his guards who had dared to take away his crown. They told him it was his eldest son. He at once ordered that Prince Harry should be called. "Alas, fair son," he said, "what right have you to the crown, when you know your father had none?" "My liege," was Harry's reply, "with the sword you won it, and with the sword will I keep it." "Do as you think best," said the King, "I leave the issue to God, and hope he will have mercy on my soul."

The King was praying in St. Edward's Chapel, Westminster, when he was seized with a fit which ended his life. His servants carried him to the abbot's lodging, and laid him down in a room called the Jerusalem Chamber.

Death of
Henry IV.
1413.

This name was given it because of the pictures of Jerusalem which hung round the walls. When the King was able to speak, he asked where he was. On being told, he said there was a prophecy that he

should die at Jerusalem, and in this way it would be fulfilled. A little while afterwards he died, March 20, 1413.

Henry IV. was in many ways a better king than Richard II. He never tried to get too much power into his own hands, and he paid respect to the laws of the land. Unhappily what is called religious persecution began in his reign; that is, punishing people for the thoughts they have about God. Until this time, with the exception of the Jews, who were always most cruelly treated, there had not been much persecution, for all English people held the Roman Catholic faith.

But in the reigns of Edward III. and Richard II. John Wycliffe, a master of Balliol College, Oxford, began to teach differently from the Church of Rome, and to speak much against the rich priests and monks, more especially against the begging friars, a set of men who used to live on the alms of other people.

Wycliffe's greatest work, however, was the translation of the Bible into the English tongue. After a time he was forbidden to teach any more at Oxford. He retired to Lutterworth, of which parish he was priest, and died in 1384.

Wycliffe's followers were nicknamed *Lollards*, and in the reign of Henry IV. they increased very much in numbers. Many of them were doubtless good and true men; but some held extreme views and caused a great deal of alarm, though perhaps in these days their opinions would not be thought so very dangerous. A much larger share of the land was then in the hands of the clergy than has been kept by the Reformed Church. And what excited most anger against the Lollards was perhaps their protest against that state of things.

Richard II. and his Queen Anne had generally been kind to the Lollards, while Henry's father, John of Gaunt, had also, for selfish reasons, given them aid, because he thought they would serve

John
Wycliffe.
1361-
1384.

The
Lollards.

his purposes. Henry, however, and his party were hostile to them.

In 1401 a law was passed by which bishops were allowed to imprison any persons who did not believe what the Church of Rome taught; and if such people could not be persuaded to give up their opinions they were to be burnt to death in the sight of the people. William Sawtree, a priest, and John Badby, a poor smith, were put to death in this way during Henry's reign.

Henry was married twice; his first wife, Mary de Bohun, was the mother of his six children. His second wife was Joan of Navarre. His two girls, Blanche and Philippa, wedded ^{Sons of} Henry IV. foreign princes, and we do not know much about them; but of his four sons we shall hear again. They were Henry Prince of Wales, who afterwards became Henry V., Thomas Duke of Clarence, John Duke of Bedford, and Humphrey Duke of Gloucester.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Where was Richard first placed as a prisoner, and to what castle was he afterwards taken? What plot was formed by his friends, and did it succeed?—2. By whom was trouble to Henry next caused? What did the sudden disappearance of Richard cause Henry's Council to do? What effect did its request produce?—3. What stories were told of the late King's death? How did they add to Henry's difficulties?—4. What people now rebelled against Henry? By whom were they led? With what success did the King meet in this war?—5. With what other enemies had Henry to contend? Whom did he send against them? When was the battle of Homildon Hill fought, and which party was victorious?—6. What person then existing was thought to have a nearer claim to the throne than Henry? Who was Sir Edmund Mortimer, and why did Henry refuse to set him free?—7. What effect had his refusal on the Percies? Give the date of the battle of Shrewsbury.
- What was the fate of Hotspur and the Earl of Worcester? How did Hotspur's father act?—8. Who planned another revolt against Henry in 1405? What was the fate of the Archbishop?—9. What became of Glendower?—10. Who fell into Henry's hands at this time?—11. How was Henry troubled during his latter years? Relate some of the stories told concerning Harry Prince of Wales.—12. Where was Henry praying when he died? Whence did this chamber derive its name? Give the date of his death.—13. What kind of king was Henry? What do we mean by religious persecution? Who began in the reigns of Edward III. and Richard II. to teach differently from the Church of Rome? How was he treated, and where and when did he die? What were his followers nicknamed?—14. What cruel law was passed in 1409? Who were burnt to death for their religion during this reign?—15. Give the names of Henry's wives and children.

CHAPTER XXV.

HENRY V. OF MONMOUTH. 1413—1422.

WHETHER the stories told about Henry V. when he was Prince of Wales are true or not, he showed no wildness of character after he came to the throne. Although he reigned only ten years, he made himself, during that time, the most powerful king in Europe, and won from his people the most intense feelings of love and devotion.

Popularity
of the new
King.

Henry's first act was to set at liberty the Earl of March, who had been kept in prison by Henry IV. from the time when he was quite a little child. He next returned to Harry Hotspur's son the land which had been taken from the Percies because of their revolt. He also gave orders that the body of Richard II. should be moved from Langley and buried with state among the kings in Westminster. By these means Henry hoped to make peace among the nobles.

His liberal
policy.

But another business soon needed his attention. The Lollards caused a great deal of alarm among the people generally, because they not only objected to the wealth of the Church, but taught doctrines that sounded very strange. Many of the things the Lollards taught are now believed by us; and the Bible which Wycliffe had given to them must have shown to those who read it how very different the teaching of Christ and his apostles was from that of the clergy in England at that time.

Severity
towards the
Lollards.

Unfortunately, however, many men joined the

Lollards more from discontent with the nobles and the laws of England, than from any strong desire that there should be a better form of religion in the land ; and these men were always ready to rebel and to create disturbance.

It is quite likely that Henry and his nobles were more afraid of the Lollards than there was any need for them to have been ; but while his first Parliament was being held, a number of papers were fixed to the doors of the churches in London, saying that if force were to be employed against the new faith "a hundred thousand men would be ready to draw the sword in its defence." The King, therefore, sent to inquire from whence these papers came, and it was found that ^{Sir John Oldcastle.} those who wrote them acted under the leadership of Sir John Oldcastle, Lord Cobham, who had married a noble lady, and had long been a friend of the King.

Oldcastle seems to have been true and earnest in his faith, and to have taken great pains to spread abroad Wycliffe's doctrines by means of teachers, whom he sent up and down through his lands in Hertfordshire and Kent. The Archbishop of Canterbury, whose name was Arundel, was determined to use all his efforts to put down Oldcastle and his followers. He therefore brought the case before the King, who, anxious to save his old friend, tried to turn him from his faith. When, however, these attempts were found quite useless, Sir John Oldcastle was taken prisoner ; but he still refused to give up that which he held true, and was therefore condemned to death and sent to the Tower of London. The King, who still cherished hopes that he might change, gave him thirty days' respite.

Oldcastle now contrived to escape from his prison ; and the Lollards, growing bolder, determined to march towards London and capture the King and his brothers, who were ^{Rising of the Lollards.} ^{1414.} then at Eltham, in Kent.

The news of this plot reached the King, who,

losing no time, came direct to London with a strong force of soldiers, and shut the gates of the city, so that the Lollards within London could not speak to the Lollards without.

Henry then went to St. Giles's in the Fields, where the Lollards were flocking in great numbers. To the first who came Henry's soldiers put the question, "For whom are you?" The answer was returned, "For Sir John Oldcastle." All who said this were directly secured, and afterwards punished; but their leader, Sir John Oldcastle, for a time escaped.

This happened in the year 1414, and was the cause of a still more severe law being made against those who were called *heretics*, that is, "sectaries." This law said that, on account of the recent troubles caused by the Lollards, all justices were to inquire after heretics, and deliver them to the bishops to be tried, who, if they found them guilty, were to give them up to the King's judges, or, as they called it, to "the secular arm," to be burnt.

Three years after this, in 1417, Sir John Oldcastle made another attempt at rebellion, but was caught and again brought to London for trial. The King was not in England at the time, but his brother, the Duke of Bedford, and the other nobles who sat in Parliament, judged the prisoner, and condemned him as a traitor and heretic. In spite of his high rank, he was burnt to death at St. Giles's in the Fields, the place where his followers had tried to bring about a rebellion.

Henry's prompt action against the Lollards showed that he was a stern, decided man, and so he proved himself throughout his reign. From his boyhood he had been a soldier; war was his delight, and he had made up his mind to get back from the French the lands his great-grandfather had won and lost again. Henry V. saw that the present was a good time to prepare for war with France, as the people

Law for the
burning of
heretics.
1414.

Execution of
Oldcastle.
1418.

Renewal of
the Hundred
Years' War.
1415.

of that country had for some time been quarrelling among themselves.

Charles VI., King of France, being insane, could not rule properly; and two noble families were disputing which of them should manage the affairs of the kingdom instead of him.

State of France.

The Duke of Orleans was at the head of one family, and the Duke of Burgundy of the other. The disputes between these two parties caused much misery to the French people; and in the midst of their troubles Henry sent to say that he claimed the crown of France on the same grounds as Edward III., and that he wished to marry Charles's daughter.

Claim of Henry.

There was even less justice in Henry's plea than there had been in Edward's; for the true heir of Edward was the Earl of March and not Henry. But Henry was so anxious to win fame for himself, that he would not listen to any of the proposals the French made to prevent war, but began to prepare his army to cross the Channel.

Just as he was about to set sail, he found that his own cousin, Richard, Earl of Cambridge,* and two other nobles, with one of whom he was very friendly, had planned that, as soon as he had left England, they would take the young Earl of March to Wales and there make him king. This hindered Henry's departure. The three men were at once tried and beheaded; but no one else suffered, and the Earl of March was still allowed Henry's friendship, while the son of the Earl of Cambridge was brought up in the King's own household. What became of him we shall see in the next reign.

This affair had delayed Henry a little; but as soon as wind and weather would allow him, he set sail from Southampton with fifteen hundred ships, six thousand armed men, and twenty-four thousand archers. Having quickly and easily crossed the Channel, he sailed to the mouth of the Seine, and

* This Richard, Earl of Cambridge, was the grandson of Edward III., through Edmund of Langley, Duke of York.

sat down with his army before the town of Harfleur, August 11th, 1415. The knights within the fortress did their best to defend the place, but in five weeks they were compelled to give themselves up. Henry, seated on a splendid throne under a tent raised for this purpose on a hill near by, and surrounded by his chief nobles, received the Governor, who came, with twenty-four of the townsmen, to bring him the keys of Harfleur.

Henry then gave orders that the English flag should be fixed to the principal gate of the town, and that all the men, women, and children should leave their homes for ever, taking with them some of their clothes and five pounds each with which to buy food. The French soldiers also were allowed to go their way, under promise that they should yield themselves prisoners at a certain time to the Governor of Calais; but all the riches within the town were divided among Henry's soldiers.

This victory had, nevertheless, been dearly bought, for numbers of the English soldiers had died from sickness caused by the dampness of the place; and when Henry had left enough men to guard Harfleur, only half the number with which he started remained, and many of these were ill.

But Henry had made up his mind to march to Calais. Slowly he and his army went along amidst great dangers, afflicted by hunger and sickness, and constantly watched by strong bodies of their enemies.

At length they were within forty-five miles of Calais, and here they heard that an army, six times their own number, had prepared to stop their progress. The French army was drawn up in close array, being closed in on either side by woods. Their position, therefore, was better for defence than attack, and on this account they determined to wait for the English to advance. Henry saw that, unless he surrendered entirely to the enemy, he had no choice but to make the attack.

The night before the battle was one of great anxiety. Henry went from one part of his army to

Battle of
Agincourt.
1415.

another, telling his soldiers how to act on the morrow, and before sunrise bade them join him in morning prayer. Then he led them to the field, and arranged them in the order in which they were to fight. He overheard an officer saying that he wished some of the good warriors who were that night lying idle in England were among the ranks of the army; but the King boldly said, "I would not have a single man more; if God gives us the victory it will be plain we owe it to His grace; if not, the fewer we are the less will be the loss to England."

Henry's courage was shared by his men, who, according to his orders, armed themselves not only with bows and arrows but with long stakes. When morning came they bared their arms and breasts, and as Henry sounded "Banners advance," rushed forward with a great shout to the attack. Then it was that the French moved forward, and Henry, seeing at once his advantage, ordered his men to halt, and bade them fix the stakes they had prepared firmly in the ground. This checked the French horsemen in their charge, and enabled the archers to pour their arrows thickly into the ranks of the enemy. A terrible conflict ensued, and although the English archers were at length driven back to the woods by the French knights, they still let their arrows fly from thence. The French, whose strength was broken, by degrees gave way, eleven thousand of them being left dead on the field. "To whom belongs this victory?" asked Henry when all was over of the French commander. "To you," he returned. "And what is that castle in the distance?" Henry pursued. "That," said the Frenchman, "is the Castle of Agincourt." "Let this battle, then," was Henry's reply, "be known by the name of the Battle of Agincourt."

In spite of this victory, Henry's army was now too small to continue the war; so after a rest at Calais they crossed back to England, ^{Triumph of Henry.} where the people rushed to meet their King at Dover with intense delight. Many waded to his

vessel, lifting him in their arms, and thus bore him to land; while all the way to London his journey was one continual triumph.

Henry from the time of his return on November 17th, 1415, to July 22nd, 1417, was taken up with collecting money, training men, and building ships for another inroad upon France; and though Sigismund, King of the Romans, came over to visit him in the meantime, and tried to make peace between England and France, Henry would not forego his project.

The laws which he made at this time concerning ships and sailors are considered to be the true beginning of the English navy, which was so famous in later history.

Henry, in his second visit to France, landed in Normandy in July, 1417, and the people were in

such a state of misery, owing to the quarrels among their rulers, that town after town was obliged to submit to him. Indeed, in some respects they found that by doing so they were in a little better case; for Henry's rule was a just one, and he would not let the people be badly treated. Rouen, the chief town, still held out, and Henry laid siege to it in the same way that Edward had laid siege to Calais.

His army closed it in on all sides, so that the people could get no food; "For," said the King, "there be three handmaidens which are ever waiting on war—fire, blood, and hunger. I have chosen the meekest of the three."

Many starving men and women were turned out of the town, but were shut out from escape by the English army, and died miserably of hunger. Once, at Christmas, food was given them by Henry's order, in honour of the birth of Christ. At last the men of Rouen said they would set fire to their city, and either force with their swords a way through the English army, or die in the attempt. Henry heard of the plan, and as it was far from his wish that Rouen should be destroyed, he offered the men who

Renewed
preparations
for war.

Invasion of
France.

1417.

Siege of
Rouen.

guarded it fair terms of peace, which they at once accepted.

Meanwhile the quarrels in the French royal family were doing even more to further Henry's plan of conquering France than his own victories.

A few months after the fall of Rouen, the Duke of Burgundy was murdered by order of the son of the insane King Charles. This action so enraged the nobles against the Prince, that they determined to enter into an agreement with Henry. Even Isabel, the prince's own mother, took the side of his enemies, and, allying herself with the son of the murdered duke, arranged that the King of England should be Regent of France, while her husband lived, and, on his death, should succeed to the crown. She also

Murder of
Burgundy.

Treaty of
Troyes.
1420.

agreed that Henry should marry her daughter Catherine, and take from her son by war the places which yet remained faithful to him. This treaty was called the Treaty of Troyes, and was signed May 21st, 1420.

Soon after this the King married the Princess Catherine, whom he had long wished to have for his wife, and took her home to England, where she was crowned with a great deal of splendour.

But in the midst of his own triumphs, Henry received the news that his brother Thomas had been defeated and killed in a battle at Beaugé, in Anjou; and hearing that the victory was chiefly owing to the assistance which the Scotch had given to the French, he took the Scotch King, James, who had for so long been a prisoner in England, with him, promising him freedom if he would help the English. To this James agreed, and they went together to France and beset the city of Meaux, which they took May 10th, 1422.

Beginning of
English
misfortune
in France.

Meanwhile a son had been born to Henry December 6th, 1421; and so soon as the town was taken, his wife, with the baby, came to him in France, and the King and Queen went together to the Bois de Vincennes, near Paris, for a little rest. For some time, indeed, Henry

Birth of
Henry VI.
1421.

had been ill, but had striven to keep up. Now he saw that his illness was really serious, and felt alarmed at the idea of his son being left without a father at such an early age. He seems to have expressed a wish that his brother, the Duke of Bedford, should rule France, and his other brother, the Duke of Gloucester, have the charge of England, until his son was of age; and he warned Gloucester, who was the younger of the two, against selfishness, and told him not to prefer his own interests to those of his country. Those who stood round his bed read to

Death of
Henry V.
1422.

him from the Psalms, and when they came to the verse, "Thou shalt build up the walls of Jerusalem," he exclaimed, "Good Lord, my mind was to build up the walls of Jerusalem," meaning that he had intended to go on a crusade to the Holy Land. These were his last words. He died August 31st, 1422.

Henry V. was carried to the grave with much splendour, and his people long looked back to his reign as one of the greatest glory. His wife, Catherine, after his death married a Welsh gentleman named Owen Tudor, and we shall hear of their children again.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What were Henry V.'s first acts on ascending the throne?—2. What people were causing great alarm at this time? What unworthy motives led some to join the religious reformers of the day?—3. What papers were found fixed to the doors of the churches in London, and to whose instigation were they traced?—4. What attempts did Henry make to save his friends?—What did the Lollards next determine to do? How did the King act when he heard the news of their revolt? What was the fate of Oldecastle?—5. Mention a law passed in 1414.—6. What country had Henry made up his mind to conquer? Why did he consider the present a good time to make the attempt?—7. What plot did Henry discover when about to set sail, and how did he act in the matter?—8. From whence did he set sail, how many ships and men did he take with him, and where did he land?—9. What town did he take? Give the date of its capture. How did he act towards the inhabitants? Why had this victory been dearly bought?—10. Towards what town did Henry then march with his army? What news did he hear when he was within forty-five miles of it?—11. Describe the battle of Agincourt, and state why it was so called.—12. How did Henry's subjects welcome him on his return to England? How long did his visit to England last? Who came to see him, and what did he persuade him to do? What laws did Henry make during this visit?—13. Where did

Henry land this second time, to what town did he lay siege, and how did he succeed in taking it?—14. What causes furthered Henry's plans for the conquest of France? What agreement was made at the treaty of Troyes?—15. Where did Henry take his Queen after their marriage? What sad news reached Henry in the midst of his triumphs? Why did he take the Scotch King James with him on his return to

France, and what promise did he make?—16. What town did Henry and James besiege and take? Give the date of its capture.—17. Give the date of the birth of Henry's son.—18. What wishes did Henry express during his last illness concerning the future government of his kingdom? What were his last words?—19. Whom did his wife marry after his death?

CHAPTER XXVI.

HENRY VI. 1422—1461.

HENRY V. had been a very brave man and won nearly the whole of France for the English, but his claim to that land was by no means a just one, and there were some people who did not think he was the true heir to the throne of England. He thus left to his son a great many difficulties, and these difficulties Henry had neither the strength of body nor of mind to overcome.

As soon as Henry V. was dead his brother Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, said that, according to the deceased King's will, he ought to be Regent of England. The Parliament, however, returned answer that the King had not power to will away the government of the land, and gave to Bedford the care of the kingdom with the title of Protector, saying, at the same time, that the Duke of Gloucester might be the chief councillor after him, and Protector of England when the Duke of Bedford was away in France. But the real government of England was to be given to several of the highest bishops and barons, and they were to act for the King until he was old enough to govern. They then offered to make the new Duke of Burgundy Regent of France, but, as he refused, Bedford took the government of that country.

Not very long after Henry V.'s death the insane King Charles died also; and though by the Treaty of Troyes the little boy Henry was now King both of France and England, the son of the last King of France determined to

The
Regency.

Affairs in
France.

assert his claim and win back his country from those who had taken it from him. He, therefore, took the title of King Charles VII. of France; and since all the land south of the Loire, as far as Guienne, owned him for its rightful King, he had plenty of good subjects ready to fight in his cause. The Scotch, too, were always willing to join with the French against the English.

To prevent this last alliance, the Duke of Bedford set the Scotch King, James, at liberty, making him swear at the same time that he would not assist the enemies of England. He also gave him for his wife Lady Jane Beaufort, an Englishwoman whom he had long loved dearly.

Bedford himself married Jacquetta, the sister of the Duke of Burgundy; and through this union, as well as his own courage and good management, he not only kept for several years all the lands that Henry V. had won in France, but added more to them.

At length nearly all the district north of the Loire belonged to England, and Bedford's wish was to gain possession also of the country south of the river. In 1428 the English laid siege to Orleans.

Siege of
Orleans.
1428.

The French inside had been for several months bravely defending this town from the English, when they heard that Sir John Fastolf, an English soldier, was bringing a quantity of salt fish as food for their enemies. The French thought they would try to get this fish for themselves, and a fight ensued, called the Battle of the Herrings, in which the English gained the victory, and a great many of the French were killed.

This misfortune almost drove Charles and his subjects to despair. But just as Orleans seemed about to fall into the hands of the English, it was saved by a simple country girl.

Joan of Arc.

In the village of Domremy, on the river Meuse, and close to the borders of Lorraine, there lived a poor man whose name was Darc, and who had a

daughter Jeanne, or in English Joan. Her father's name was sometimes written D'Arc, or *Of Arc*: hence she came to be called Joan of Arc. Joan was brought up among the poor country-folk, and was no better taught than the rest of them. In those days people had many strange fancies and beliefs, and the villagers of Domremy fancied that under the branches of a certain old beech-tree the fairies held their midnight meetings; they also believed many strange cures to be wrought in the waters of a little stream that ran along by the village. But the most sacred spot in Domremy was a chapel called the Hermitage of the Virgin Mary. Here Joan often went, either to hang garlands or to burn tapers in honour of the Mother of our Lord.

Once, when Joan was twelve years old, she imagined she saw a bright light by her side and heard a voice. The voice, she thought, belonged to Michael the Archangel, and it told her that God would protect her if she would be good and true.

As Joan grew up she saw in what a sad state her country was, and grieved both for the people and the King. She thought a great deal about these things, and pondered much over a certain prophecy, that from the forest near by should come a maid who would save the land of France. One day, when Joan was out tending her father's sheep, she thought she saw again the vision of the Archangel, as well as the two saints, Catherine and Margaret, who told her that she herself was the maid of whom the prophecy had spoken, and that she must lead her King to Rheims, there to be crowned. In obedience to this fancy, Joan escaped from her father and her home in the village of Domremy, and made known her purpose to a French officer. He at first thought that the girl was mad, but at last sent her to Charles, who was at Chinon, two hundred and fifty miles distant. It was a long journey for Joan, and took eleven days.

When she arrived, Joan was not allowed to enter into the presence of the King until the matter had been well considered, as it was thought she might

have intercourse with bad spirits and not good ones. We are told that Charles took off his royal dress before she entered, in order to see whether she would be able to point him out without it. This Joan did at once, and going up to him said, "God give you good life, gentle king." "I am not the King," said Charles; "he is there," he added, pointing to the company. "Nay," cried Joan, "it is not they, but you are the King, most noble lord. I am Joan the maid sent on the part of God to aid you and the kingdom, and I tell you, by his order, that you shall be crowned in the city of Rheims." For a long time all the French kings had been crowned at Rheims, and though Charles called himself king already, it was needed for his full dignity that he also should be crowned there. But Rheims was at that time in the power of the English.

After this Charles seems to have believed in Joan's mission; and the girl, who was very beautiful, and only seventeen years old, was dressed in armour and seated on horseback. The people shouted with delight when they saw her, and truly believed she was no mortal woman, but an angel sent from heaven to save the country.

Joan then sent a message to the Duke of Bedford, and bade him raise the siege if he would avoid the wrath of God. But at this message the English only laughed. Before long, however, a proof came that the girl was not a subject for contempt.

A force of soldiers had been given her to lead to Orleans. She sent away those who were known to be thoroughly bad, and bidding the others join with her in prayer, she inspired them with so much courage and belief in the justice of their cause, that they were able to make their way through the English army. The Duke of Bedford wrote home that the tide of success had been turned by a "limb of the Fiend."

Joan enters
Orleans.

Joan always declared that two special things had been given her to do. One was to set Orleans free, the other to lead the King to be crowned at Rheims.

The first part of her mission was now accomplished, and she begged Charles to let her fulfil the second. This would be a bold venture, for their army would have to march right through the enemy's country. Still the victory at Orleans had given fresh courage to the French; and the English, believing that Joan was led by some power they did not understand, lost heart, and allowed one town after another to submit to Charles.

At last Joan and the King reached Rheims, where the people received them with great delight; and, after driving the English from the town, they brought the keys of it to Charles, and made preparations to crown him the next day. This was done in the usual way, only

Charles
crowned at
Rheims.
1429.

Joan stood by the King's side holding her banner; and when the ceremony was over she fell on her knees before him and prayed that she might return to the village of Domremy. The King refused to allow this, but instead heaped honours on the maid and on her family. Joan continued to lead the army; though not with so much success as before, for she had lost faith in herself, and believed that her mission was over.

In May, 1430, Joan was sent to raise the siege of Compiègne, and there she was wounded; while, either through some mistake or because the governor did not wish to share the fame of the defence with a girl, the gates were shut against her, and she was obliged to give herself up as a prisoner. The English were delighted when they heard this, for Joan had certainly turned the tide of success against them; and though she had done so much for the French, they quite neglected her in her trouble, and seemed to forget all her past services.

So Joan was taken prisoner, and the English sent her to Rouen to be tried. Her judges declared her to be a witch and a heretic, and ordered that she should be burned to death. This sentence was carried out May 30th, 1431, in the market-place of Rouen, in the midst of a great

Capture of
Joan.
1430.

End of Joan
of Arc.
1431.

number of people. To the last Joan said she was innocent, and believed that she had been led by God; and she declared that the Archangel Michael had come to her in prison, as well as St. Margaret and St. Catherine.

Although many of the English really believed that the girl was a witch, who deserved death, others, who knew better, felt that this deed was unjust and wicked; and the war was never carried on with the same spirit as it had been before.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>1. What difficulties did Henry V. leave to his young son?—2. How did Parliament arrange for the Government to be carried on while the King was too young to rule?—3. Who took the title of King of France on the death of Charles VI.? What part of France still owned him as its rightful king?—4. Why did the Duke of Bedford set the Scotch King at liberty, and whom did he give him in marriage? What lady did Bedford himself marry?—</p> | <p>5. To what town did the English lay siege in 1428? Who won the battle of the Herrings? Why was it so called? By whom was Orleans saved?—6. What do we know of the early years of Joan of Arc? At what place did she meet the French King? What took place at their interview? Why was there any difficulty about the King being crowned at Rheims?—7. Where and how was Joan captured, and what became of her?</p> |
|--|---|

CHAPTER XXVII.

HENRY VI. (*continued*). 1422—1461.

MEANWHILE the baby Henry had been growing up under the care of his two uncles, Bedford and Gloucester, and his great-uncle, Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester. Too soon for his happiness the duties of a king came upon the royal child. When he was little more than three years old he was taken to open Parliament, much to his own terror; and before he was eight he was crowned King of England; while after Joan of Arc had led Charles VII. to Rheims, he, too, was taken across the Channel to be crowned king of that country also.

Very early Henry was taught all the learning of the period; indeed he was kept so hard at work that he can have had but little time left for play. The consequence was the child was overworked, and when he grew to be a man had no strength left to rule the country properly.

The beginning of Henry's misfortunes arose from the quarrelsome disposition of his uncle Gloucester.

From the very first he had been vexed at not having the entire management of the kingdom, and he was constantly trying to get more power than rightly belonged to him. He was opposed in his attempts by Henry Beaufort, his uncle, and on this account a bad feeling arose between the two men.

In 1427 Bishop Beaufort was made a Cardinal*

* The name *Cardinal* is given to an exalted order among the Roman Catholic clergy. The best known sign of their dignity is a red hat. The election of the Pope is in their hands.

by the Pope. This was considered a great honour in the Romish Church. But as the English were always rather jealous of Rome, Gloucester took this opportunity of saying that his uncle Henry ought not to keep his place in the council any longer.

The other members of the council hardly knew what to do in the matter; but Beaufort soon convinced them that he cared more for England than he did for the Pope, for after gathering together a number of soldiers, to fight, as he said, against the Pope's enemies, he took them over to France instead to help in the war there. This pleased the English very much, and Beaufort was praised for his loyalty, instead of being dismissed from the government.

After a time Gloucester grew jealous of his brother Bedford, and spoke so unkindly of his management of the war in France, that Bedford, who had really done his best, begged Gloucester to write down the accusation, that he might defend himself before the King.

Gloucester
and Bedford.

Henry was only thirteen, and could not endure quarrelling. He told the brothers that "they were both his dearest uncles," begged them to dispute no more, and declared that neither of them had been attacked. Thus peace

Death of
Bedford.
1435.

was made, and Bedford returned to the war. But he was ill and miserable, and felt more and more that it was turning out a failure. Indeed, in 1435 he was deserted altogether by the Duke of Burgundy, who went over to the side of the French King. This quite broke down Bedford, and he died a few days after. Henry cried bitterly when he heard of Burgundy's desertion; he felt also that, in his uncle Bedford, he had lost one of his best friends.

In 1441 Gloucester fell into disgrace himself, through his wife, whose name was Eleanor Cobham. Eleanor believed, as did many people at that time, in witches and witchcraft; and knowing that her husband would be King if Henry died without children, she tried to put an end to his life in a rather strange way. She

Eleanor
Cobham and
the Witch
of Eye.

employed a man named Roger Bolingbroke, and a woman commonly known as the Witch of Eye, to kill the King by *spells*. They made a waxen image of the King, and placed it before a hot fire, fancying that as it melted away Henry's life would also diminish, and that when it was gone he would die. All these three people were caught and punished, and Eleanor was compelled on three different days to walk through the streets of London in a white sheet and with a lighted taper in her hand; she was afterwards imprisoned for life.

But this affair had given the King a dislike to his uncle Gloucester, and this dislike increased as he found how great was his wish for the war in France to continue. For his own part he longed more for peace than for anything. This longing drew him towards his great-uncle, the Cardinal Beaufort, who also opposed the continuance of war.

Now Henry had heard of Margaret, the daughter of the Duke of Anjou, who was brother-in-law to the French King. She was a clever, beautiful girl, and Henry thought that he might bring the war more quickly to an end if he married her. He therefore sent over William de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, to arrange the affair with her father. This he did in 1444, by giving up to the Duke of Anjou Maine and Anjou, which the English had partly conquered, and taking Margaret without a marriage portion, as her father was too poor to give her any.

As Margaret proved to have all the strength of mind which Henry lacked, she made him do whatever she liked, while Suffolk became a great favourite with them both. The marriage, however, was very unpopular with the English, who were vexed at the loss of Maine and Anjou. This feeling Gloucester encouraged, and Henry, believing that his uncle was plotting against him, caused him to be taken prisoner, February 8th, 1447. On the 23rd he died so suddenly that every one thought he must have been murdered, and

Marriage of
Henry and
Margaret of
Anjou.
1445.

Death of
Gloucester.
1447.

accused Suffolk of knowing all about it. This seems scarcely probable, for we know that sudden death is by no means an uncommon thing, and Suffolk does not appear to have been a bad man.

It happened that Cardinal Beaufort, Gloucester's enemy, who was a very old man, died a few days after; and those persons who said that Gloucester had been murdered, said also that Cardinal Beaufort had died of remorse for the deed.

This was not true, for a man who was there at the time relates how the cardinal called the clergy from the cathedral to the palace, made them sing prayers for his soul, had his will read, and gravely said good-bye to all his friends.

It was not long after Maine and Anjou were given up before Rouen and Normandy submitted to the French King. This practically ended the "Hundred Years' War," which had begun with the attempt of Edward III. to make himself King of France. By the year 1451 nothing remained of the English dominions in France except only the town of Calais. Yet the English sovereigns kept the title of King or Queen of France for a long time afterwards. It had now, however, become an empty name.

The discontent caused by these events made Suffolk, the King's favourite, more disliked than ever. In January, 1450, he was accused of being a traitor. It seems that the Bishop of Chichester was sent to Portsmouth to pay the soldiers and sailors their wages. He tried to persuade these men to take less than was their due, which so enraged them that they fell upon him and killed him. Just before his death the Bishop said something about Suffolk, which his enemies took up, and ere a month had passed they accused him in Parliament of a great many bad deeds—among others of being a secret friend to France, and of having plotted to take the throne away from Henry and give it to his own son.

Henry seems to have believed in Suffolk's innocence, but he bade him, perhaps for his own safety, leave England for five years. Suffolk obeyed, and was sailing towards France, when a large ship bore down upon him. He was ordered to get on board her, and the first words spoken to him were, "Welcome, traitor." He was kept a prisoner until the second morning, when there was rowed to the side of the larger vessel a boat, in which was a man with a block and a rusty sword. Suffolk was placed in this boat, and the man, after telling him he was "to die like a knight," struck off his head, May 2nd.

Henry felt the loss of his friend Suffolk, when in June the same year a revolt broke out in Kent and Sussex, which is known as Jack Cade's rebellion. The people in these counties complained, among other things, that the King's officers, when they collected the taxes, took more money from them than they ought, and that the Statutes of Labourers * weighed on them very heavily. In this there may have been some truth, as everything in Henry's reign was done in a weak and disorderly way.

For this there were several causes. Richard II. had wasted the revenues of the crown, and the poverty of his successors weakened their hold on the country. The great lords were constantly at war with one another; private life and property were never secure from robbery and violence; and the laws were badly administered. It was a time when the feudal system was breaking up; men were growing weary of the old ideas, without being fully prepared for new.

The late failure of the French war was, above all, a great cause of bitterness. The greater number of the rebels consisted of farmers and tradesmen, but they were joined by more than a hundred gentlemen and esquires, and their cause was favoured by some great landowners.

The leader of the rebels was a man who, though

* See p.136.

his real name was Jack Cade, called himself John Mortimer, and said he was the cousin of the Duke of York. On June 1st, 1450, the rebels took up their stand on Blackheath, while the King was with his Parliament at Leicester. As soon as he heard the news he hastened to London with a large army, part of which was sent against Cade. It was soon overcome by the rebels, and its leader killed.

When the nobles heard of this, they told Henry that their men would not remain with them unless he punished some of his advisers; and the King weakly sent one of them, Lord Say, to the Tower. But his compliance did no good, for his army deserted him all the same.

Then, scarcely knowing what to do, the King turned away towards Kenilworth. When the Londoners saw that he was gone, they opened their gates to Cade, who entered at once with his followers, and, as he passed in, he struck his sword against London Stone and said, "Now is Mortimer lord of the city." Then he went to the Tower, fetched out Lord Say, and had him beheaded in Cheapside. He also killed Lord Say's son, who was Sheriff of Kent, and caused the heads of both men to be fixed on poles and carried about the streets.

Cade and his men next began to rob and destroy the houses of those citizens whom they did not like. For three days he did what he chose in the city; but at the end of that time the Londoners were quite tired of him, and a hard fight took place by night between them and Cade's men. In the morning it seemed doubtful which party had won, and a pardon was offered to the rebels if they would leave off fighting and go home. Most of them accepted these terms. Cade, however, not yet tired of doing mischief, broke open two of the prisons, and began to make a new army out of the prisoners. With these men he went to Rochester, but his followers were soon conquered, and he himself was caught and killed by a gentleman named Iden. His head was

cut off and fixed on London Bridge with its face towards Kent.

The man to whom Henry next showed favour was Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, his cousin,* but, unfortunately, he was no better liked than the Duke of Suffolk had been. His chief enemy was the Duke of York, who about this time comes forward.

Richard, Duke of York, was the son of the Earl of Cambridge who had been beheaded in the last reign. That Earl of Cambridge was, it must be

Wars of the
Roses.

1450—
1471.

remembered, grandson to Edward III., through Edmund Langley. Thus so long as Henry had no children Richard was the true heir to the throne. Indeed, according to the opinion of many, he ought then to have been the King of England, for he was descended, on his mother's side, from Lionel, third son of Edward III., whereas John of Gaunt, the father of Henry IV., was Edward's fourth son.

York and Somerset were thus rivals, and when, in 1455, Henry fell ill, and could not attend to any-

Illness of
the King.
1455.

thing, York was appointed to take his place for a time, while Somerset was accused of being a traitor and sent to prison in the Tower. For many months Henry was so ill that he did not know anything about what was going on around him, and was quite ignorant that a little boy had been born to him. But at Christmas, 1455, he became so much better that he took the government into his own hands again, and, of course, there was no need for York to be Protector any longer. Somerset was soon set free, and so much distrust was shown toward York and his friends that they took up arms against the King.

This began what we generally call the Wars of the Roses, or the civil war between the Houses of York and Lancaster. Civil wars are wars in which

* He was only a distant cousin. The Beauforts were descended from Henry's great-grandfather, John of Gaunt, by Catherine Swynford, who was not a lawful wife.

the people of the same country are fighting against each other, as they were now doing. Those who thought Richard of York had the best claim to the crown fought for him, and wore as their badge a white rose; while the followers of Henry wore a red one, that being the badge of the House of Lancaster.

York's chief friends were the two Nevilles, Earls of Salisbury and Warwick. Of this family we shall hear a good deal for some time.

The first battle was fought at St. Albans, May 22nd, 1455; in it York was the victor, while Somerset, his rival and enemy, was killed, as well as several other nobles. Henry himself was ^{Battle of St. Albans.} wounded in the neck. York and his ^{1455.} friends Warwick and Salisbury pretended, however, that they were not fighting against the King, but against his evil counsellors; and they came to him after the battle, and, kneeling before him, besought his pardon. This Henry gave very willingly, and for a time peace seemed to be restored.

Before long the King had a return of his illness, and York was again made Protector; but, Somerset being dead, Margaret came forward to manage the King and the King's affairs. The war, however, soon broke out again, and another battle was fought September 23rd, 1459, at Bloreheath in Staffordshire, in which Margaret and the Lancastrians won.

York, not willing to own himself defeated, collected an army in Wales, and was joined at Ludlow by his friends Salisbury and Warwick, who remained where they were until the King came up. While the two armies lay opposite each other, Henry, who was always sorry to shed blood, offered his pardon to all who would leave York and join him. So many soldiers, on hearing this, went over to the King's side, that York and his friends were afraid of risking a battle, and fled, leaving their banners on the field. York and his eldest son went to Ireland; Salisbury, Warwick, and the second son, to France.

In November the King held a Parliament at

Coventry, and in this Parliament the Duke of York and all his party were declared traitors. They would have suffered death had they not all left the country. Little frightened at this, Salisbury and Warwick the next year, in June, 1460, returned to England and landed at Sandwich, where they were received by a great number of people. Their followers increased as they went along, and London opened its gates to them. Henry gathered together his men at Coventry, and was met by the Yorkist army at Northampton. Another battle was fought here on July 10th, in which the King was taken prisoner, and afterwards sent to London.

York soon followed from Ireland, and seeing now his opportunity, determined openly to claim the crown. He appealed to the House of Lords, who, in their turn, consulted the King. He ordered the Lords to examine and refute the claim, and after much argument and discussion a compromise was arrived at, the purport of which was to leave the crown in possession of the King during his life, and to make the Duke of York heir to the throne, giving him the Principality of Wales and other honours, with an income of 3,000 marks. This agreement was finally settled on the 31st of March.

Margaret was in the North when this arrangement was made, and when she heard of it her anger was aroused at her son being thus shut out from the crown. Calling all the nobles who cared for the House of Lancaster to her aid, she assembled a large army, and completely defeated York's forces on the 21st of December at Wakefield. The Duke of York was himself taken prisoner during the battle. It is said that afterwards a noble, Lord Clifford, cut off his head and brought it to Margaret, saying, "Madam, your war is done; here is your king's ransom," and that Margaret ordered the head to be crowned with paper, and set up on the

Battle of
Northamp-
ton.
1460.

Attempted
compromise.
1460.

Battle of
Wakefield.
1460.

Death of
Richard of
York.

walls of York. The Earl of Salisbury fell in the same battle, and York's second son Edmund, Earl of Rutland, was slain after the fight by Lord Clifford, who is reported to have said to him, when he fell on his knees and begged for mercy, "As thy father slew mine, so will I slay thee and all thy kin."

Such stories show how bitter the feeling had now become between the Houses of York and Lancaster. The victory at Wakefield only stirred the Yorkists to fresh efforts, and when the Duke of York's eldest son, Edward, ^{Battle of Mortimer's Cross.} ^{1461.} heard of the death of his father and of his brother, he went directly to Shrewsbury, and defeated, at Mortimer's Cross, February 2nd, 1461, a Lancastrian army which had been got together by Henry's half-brother, Sir Jasper Tudor. Owen Tudor, the father, was taken prisoner and beheaded, but he left another son, Edmund, Earl of Richmond, to be the father of a king who reigned afterwards.

Meanwhile Margaret made her way towards London with an army of men from the North, and won the second battle of St. Albans on the 17th of February, which restored the King to liberty. Unfortunately she could not keep her soldiers in order, and as they marched along they did so much harm to the country that the people grew quite disgusted with the royal cause; and when Edward came to London the citizens received him with great delight.

When Edward was safe in the capital he assembled a council, March 4th, 1461, in which it was determined that, Henry being no longer fit to reign, Edward should be chosen king. ^{Edward Duke of York made King.} ^{1461.} On the same day the people were asked at St. John's Field whether they would have Edward for their king. They made answer with great shouts and clapping of hands, and with cries of "Yea, yea, King Edward! King Edward!"

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Under whose care had the infant King been brought up? Describe his childhood.—2. What caused his first misfortunes? What promotion had Bishop Beaufort in 1427? To whom is the title of *Cardinal* given? What did Gloucester now take the opportunity of saying? and how did Beaufort show his loyalty to England?—3. Of whom did Gloucester next become jealous? How did Henry act in the matter?—4. By whom was Bedford deserted in 1435? How did it affect him?—5. When and why did Gloucester fall into disgrace? To whom did the King's longing for peace draw him?—6. Whom did Henry determine to marry, and why? What noblemen did he send to France to fetch his bride, and what arrangement did he make with her father? What was the new Queen's character? Why was her marriage unpopular with the English?—7. Who encouraged these feelings? To what suspicions did the sudden death of the Duke of Gloucester give rise? Who is said to have died of remorse for the deed? Was this true?—8. What practically ended the Hundred Years' War? Relate the circumstances of Suffolk's death.—9. What causes were there for the complaints made by the people at the beginning of Jack Cade's rebellion? What success did it obtain? What was the end of Cade?—10. To whom did Henry next show favour? Who was his favourite's chief enemy? Explain clearly the Duke of York's claim to the Crown.—11. What led to his being chosen Protector?—12. What wars began at this time? Who were York's chief friends? Where was the first battle fought, and when? When did the war break out again? Give the date of the battle of *Bloreheath*. Why were York and his friends obliged to leave England, and where did they go?—13. Where did the next battle take place, and what compromise was now attempted?—14. Whose anger was aroused by this arrangement? What persons were slain in or after the battles of *Wakefield* and *Mortimer's Cross*? Give the dates of each.—15. What battle restored the King to liberty? How did the behaviour of Margaret's army affect the *Lancastrian* cause? Who was now made King of England?

CHAPTER XXVIII.

EDWARD IV.—1461.—1483.

KING EDWARD IV. was only nineteen when he began to reign, but he soon made himself a great favourite with his people. He was handsome, good-natured, and brave; his manners were pleasant, while his grace and courage Character of Edward IV. attracted many to his side, who contrasted him with the weak and unhappy Henry.

Unfortunately Edward's good points were all on the surface. He had no really great qualities; and as time went on he showed himself selfish in his pleasures, ungrateful to his friends, cruel and unforgiving towards his enemies.

Although Edward had been declared king in London, Henry and Margaret were still in the North with a large army; and it was necessary to conquer them before the land could have rest. Warwick, therefore, went northwards with a number of men, and Edward followed him in a few days.

In a fight at Ferry Bridge, Lord Clifford, who had killed Edward's brother, was himself defeated and slain. The next day, March 28th, 1461, Battle of Towton. another battle was fought near York between the two villages of Towton and Saxton. It began at four o'clock in the afternoon, lasted all night and on into the next morning, when it was renewed with even greater vigour, and did not cease until about three in the afternoon. The Yorkists spared the lives of none, and the Lancastrians, in despair at losing their cause, went on fighting even in the midst of a heavy snow-storm, which beat

in their faces. When they were at last obliged to give way, their enemies pursued them for several miles, killing as many as they could, while others were drowned in crossing rivers. After the battle the ground was covered with the dead bodies of fallen men and horses, even to the very gates of York. Henry and Margaret fled to Scotland, and Edward, after entering York in triumph, returned to London, where he held his first Parliament, and was solemnly crowned at Westminster, June 28th, 1461.

Henry, Margaret, and their followers were now declared to be traitors, and King Edward's two young brothers, George and Richard, who had been sent away from England for safety, returned home. George was made Duke of Clarence, and Richard Duke of Gloucester.

Meanwhile Margaret sought and obtained some help from Louis XI., King of France, and returned to England resolved to retrieve her fortunes. She was again defeated in two battles—Hedgely Moor, fought in April 1464, and Hexham in May of the same year.

For some time Henry remained in concealment, but in 1465 he was caught while wandering about in Lancashire among his friends, and sent as a prisoner to the Tower of London.

While Edward's party had been destroying the last hopes of Henry, Edward himself had stolen away to Grafton, near Stony Stratford, and there secretly married Elizabeth Grey, a lady whose husband had been killed at the second battle of St. Albans whilst fighting for the cause of Lancaster. Jacquetta, the mother of Elizabeth, was the daughter of the Duke of Burgundy; she had married Henry's uncle, the Duke of Bedford, and after his death she had become the wife of Richard Woodville, Lord Rivers. The family was not a very high one, and Edward did not dare to let any one know of his marriage until some time after it had taken place. Edward was not more than

Edward's
brothers.

Queen
Margaret's
activity.

King
Henry VI.
in the Tower.
1465.

Marriage of
Edward IV.
1464.

twenty-two; Elizabeth was some years older, and had children of her own. By her beauty and grace, however, she soon gained great influence over the King, who, after he had publicly owned her as his wife, raised her relations to great honours. This disgusted the older nobles, who looked upon the Woodvilles as upstarts. The Nevilles were especially jealous of them; the Earl of Warwick, in particular, was extremely ^{Anger of the Earl of Warwick.} angry at the marriage, as he had planned to get the sister of the King of France as a wife for Edward, and hoped thereby to bring about a lasting peace between the two countries.

Warwick was the most powerful baron in England. He was fond of show, lived in great splendour, and had hitherto been thoroughly attached to the House of York. Indeed ^{The "King-maker."} so much had Edward's success been due to him, that he was called the "King-maker." Warwick had, until Edward's marriage with Elizabeth, completely ruled the King; but after Edward had once broken loose from his influence a good deal of bad feeling arose between the two men. This bad feeling was increased by Edward when he married his sister Margaret to the Duke of Burgundy, the enemy of France, and a man whom Warwick disliked very much. This, among other reasons, determined Warwick to humble the King, and he was successful.

The brother next in age to Edward was George, Duke of Clarence. He was a good-looking but very worthless young man; and as Edward had ^{Clarence's marriage.} at that time no son, he considered himself the next heir to the throne. Warwick ^{1469.} encouraged him in this idea, and, much against the King's will, gave him his eldest daughter, Isabel, for a wife. This wedding took place in 1469 at Calais, of which town Warwick was the governor.

At that time Edward was putting down a revolt which had begun in the North of England through a quarrel about tithes. It was led by a man named

Robert Hilyard, who was defeated and put to death by Warwick's brother, Montague Neville. Hilyard's place was taken by a certain Sir William Conyers, who called himself Robin of Redesdale, and who went up and down the country in the summer of 1469 stirring up the people to rebel. In this Warwick secretly helped him.

Robin of
Redesdale.
1469.

In July the people of the North, to the number of sixty thousand, rose and published an address to the King, in which they told over again all the mistakes committed by Edward II., Richard II., and Henry VI., through their favourites, charged the reigning King with many grievous faults, and begged him to punish his evil counsellors, by whom they meant the Woodvilles.

Rising in
the North.

The King at once went to the North to meet the rebels; but his friends were beaten at Banbury on the 26th of July, and he himself fell into the hands of Warwick and of his brother Clarence, who had just returned from Calais. Two of the Woodvilles also were taken captive by the men of Robin of Redesdale and put to death. Warwick and Clarence did not keep the King a prisoner long. Having set him at liberty they received a pardon, and the revolt died out for a little while.

Another rebellion, however, broke out in 1470 in Lincolnshire, headed by a gentleman named Sir Robert Welles. Edward directly sent for Sir Robert's father, Lord Welles, who feared at first to obey. When the King promised his forgiveness, he at once went to his court. Edward then told him that he must make his son submit to his mercy, and this he promised to do, though with no good result.

Rising in
Lincolnshire.
1470.

When the King had got as far as Stamford, and found Sir Robert had not laid down his arms, he meanly ordered the father to be beheaded, and once more sent for the son. Sir Robert again refused, saying that he would never trust the man who had murdered his father. The King was, however, too strong for him; and having beaten his army near *Stamford*, he took Sir Robert and the leaders pri-

soners, most of whom were cruelly slain. Sir Robert Welles confessed before his death that Clarence, the King's brother, and the Earl of Warwick had both been in league with him against Edward, and that their intention was to make Clarence king. The Earl and Clarence were thus obliged to leave England and fly to France, where Warwick met Margaret, and having with some difficulty made friends with her, he promised to help her to get back the crown for her husband. She in return consented to the marriage of her son, the young Prince Edward, with Warwick's second daughter, Anne.

Resolved on the overthrow of King Edward, Warwick landed at Dartmouth in September, 1470. Edward, who was at York, was much astonished when he heard the news, and he soon found himself deserted. Montague Neville left him at once and joined his brother Warwick, while the soldiers, to Edward's dismay, shouted "God bless King Henry." Indeed, so few men came to Edward's aid, that he saw there was nothing for him to do but fly the country. So taking his horse he rode by night to the town of Lynn, where he found one English and two Dutch ships. With his brother Richard and a few intimate friends he got on board, and sailed away to Holland on the 3rd of October.

Warwick, the King-maker, was now the master of everything. He at once set Henry free from the Tower, declared him again king, and then called a Parliament, which settled the crown on Henry's son Edward, and, if he died without children, on Clarence, King Edward's brother.

All this time Margaret and her son were still away in France. In less than three months, however, King Edward, who had obtained some aid in Holland, returned to England. He landed at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire, on the 14th of March, 1471. There Henry IV. had landed before him. Following the example of that monarch, he said at first he had only come to recover his lands,

Warwick
and Queen
Margaret.

Restoration
of Henry VI.
1470.

King Ed-
ward's
return.
1471.

and not to remove Henry. At Nottingham he altered his plans, and called himself the King of England. When he got as far as Coventry he was joined by his brother Clarence, who thus helped to ruin Warwick. He met with no resistance on the way to the capital. In London he took Henry prisoner, and with him in his train went to Barnet to fight against Warwick and his brother Montague.

A battle took place at Barnet, April 14th, 1471. The King-maker might again have won, had not a thick fog come on. In the darkness his soldiers mistook friends for foes, and after six hours' fighting, Warwick and his brother were both slain, and Edward was again the conqueror.

A terrible storm of wind had been raging on the coast for some weeks, and this had prevented Margaret and her son from crossing. When at last they landed at Weymouth and heard the news of Warwick's defeat at Barnet, they were almost in despair. They had still, however, a large army, and with this they got as far as Tewkesbury on the 4th of May. King Edward was already at hand.

But the Lancastrian soldiers, though numerous, were in such bad order that Edward defeated them with great slaughter, and after the battle gave full play to the cruelty of his nature by causing several men to whom he had promised pardon to be beheaded as traitors. Margaret was taken prisoner, and the boy for whom she had risked so much was slain; some said during the fight, but of his death others told the following tale.

On the field of battle the young Prince Edward was taken captive. After the fight he was brought before the King, who asked him why he had come to England. "To preserve my father's crown and my own inheritance," was the reply. When he heard this the King struck him on the face with his steel glove, while his two brothers, Clarence and

Battle of
Barnet.

1471.

Battle of
Tewkesbury.

Death of
Prince
Edward, and
end of the
Wars of the
Roses.

1471.

Gloucester, fell on him and slew him with their swords.

On the 21st of May Edward entered London in triumph; and soon afterwards Henry died, murdered, so people said, by the Duke of Gloucester, though Edward himself gave out that his death was owing to "pure displeasure and melancholy." Margaret remained a prisoner in England until 1475, when Louis XI. of France paid Edward a sum of money to set her free; and as she had no one then left to fight for she troubled England no more.

After the death of the King-maker, Edward ruled the land according to his own pleasure; and, as the saying ran, "the rich were hanged by the purse, the poor by the neck." Still he seems to have been liked by the tradesmen, with whom he did a great deal of business.

In 1475 he got ready a very large army to invade France, which he claimed for his own, in the same way that Henry V. and Edward III. had done. The French King then reigning was, however, a clever man, and he persuaded him to take a large sum of money back to England instead of fighting; the French also promised to give him a pension every year.

Meanwhile Edward's two brothers, Clarence and Gloucester, were continually quarrelling; for the elder having married Warwick's daughter wanted to have all her late father's land and money. Richard would not be outdone by George, and made up his mind to marry Anne, the widow of Margaret's son Edward.

At first he could not find Anne, for she had been hidden by Clarence. After some time he discovered her in London, in the dress of a cook, and with a great deal of difficulty persuaded her to be his wife. Even after the marriage Clarence refused to share Warwick's lands with Richard, and Edward at last settled the matter by making each of his brothers take half. This did not at all satisfy

Death of
Henry VI.

Edward's
designs on
France.
1475.

Quarrels of
Edward's
brothers.

Clarence, whose enmity to his royal brother became all the more manifest. Other causes of offence arose, and at last Edward and his court determined to get Clarence out of the way. In January, 1478, Edward accused him in Parliament of being a traitor; he was condemned to death, and sent to the Tower. In February of that year he was executed, but so secretly that no one knew in what way he died. The report ran that he had been drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine, a drink of which he was very fond.

Mysterious
death of
Clarence.
1478.

The King, some people said, suffered much remorse for this murder, and, when he was asked to pardon any one, would exclaim, "Oh, unfortunate brother, that no man should have asked pardon for thee!"

In 1480 Edward sent Richard to Scotland to fight King James III. In 1482 he tried to arrange a marriage between his daughter and the son of the King of France. In this he was disappointed, and the young prince married another lady. The affair so vexed Edward that the French even went so far as to say that he died of the disappointment. The truth is that he had ruined his health by a riotous life, and death came upon him rather suddenly, April 9th, 1483. He left two young sons and five daughters.

Death of
Edward IV.
1483.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Describe Edward's character. Give the names and dates of the battles which for a time put an end to the hopes of the Lancastrians.
2. Where did Edward hold his first Parliament, and what titles did he bestow on his brothers? What became of King Henry?—3. Whom did the King now secretly marry? What were the consequences of this alliance?—4. To whom did Warwick marry his daughter Isabel? Mention the revolts which took place at this time, and give the names of those concerned in them. Into whose hands did the King fall?—5. Give an account of the rising in Lincolnshire. Where did Margaret and Warwick meet, and to what agreement did they come?—6. Where did Warwick land, and how did he succeed in his project?—7. How long was it before Edward returned? Whose example did he follow?—8. Give the dates of the battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury. Who were defeated and slain? Who was killed in the former battle? What was the fate of Prince Edward and of King Henry?—9. For what purpose did Edward get ready an army in 1475?—10. Why did Clarence and Gloucester quarrel? Whom did Gloucester marry? What story was told about the death of Clarence?—11. Mention Edward's last actions. Give the date of his death.

CHAPTER XXIX.

EDWARD V. APRIL 9TH—JUNE 22ND, 1483.

EDWARD IV. had, on his deathbed, left the care of his eldest son, as well as of his kingdom, to his brother Richard, Duke of Gloucester, who had always seemed true to him, and who had hitherto shown such a peaceable disposition that he was trusted and liked by most people. In the North of England, where he had lived much, he had won golden opinions; and though it was said that he had helped in the murder of Henry VI. and of his son, these things could not be proved against him; whatever share he may have had in them, the chief blame rested, and still rests, with Edward.

Popularity of
the Duke of
Gloucester.

But Richard was very ambitious, and his ambition led him on step by step, until he had committed a great crime, the remembrance of which made him miserable for the rest of his life, and, in the end, brought about his ruin and death.

The young Edward, who was twelve years old, was keeping his court at Ludlow when the news reached him of his father's death. He was in the midst of his mother's friends and relations, who, wishing to keep him still in their power, determined to send him up to London as soon as possible. They were, however, prevented by Richard, who also set out for London as soon as he heard of his brother's death. When he reached Northampton he found that his nephew had been there the day before, and had now gone on to Stony Stratford, which was about ten miles further on the way.

Capture of
the young
King.

The King's half-brother, Lord Richard Grey, and Earl Rivers, his uncle on his mother's side, hearing this, rode back to meet Richard; and another noble, Henry, Duke of Buckingham, also came up to join the party. At first they all appeared very friendly, but when Rivers and Grey left the two dukes together a conversation was held between them which caused Gloucester to order both men to be taken prisoners. On the next morning Gloucester and Buckingham went on to Stony Stratford, where they met Edward. They now told him that his uncle, Earl Rivers, his half-brother, Lord Richard Grey, and the Marquis of Dorset, were plotting together to get the government into their own hands.

The boy declared that he did not believe what they said, and finding he could not appease their anger burst into tears. Upon this Gloucester bade him dismiss his fears, and rely on the affections of his father's brother, adding that what he was about to do had been made really necessary by the family of the King's mother. He then sent Rivers and Grey as prisoners into Yorkshire, and took his nephew with him to London, where it was found that a large quantity of armour and weapons of war had been hidden among the baggage of Earl Rivers. This made everyone think Richard had been right in what he had done.

Elizabeth, the late King's wife, was very much alarmed when she heard how her family had been treated; and on the 1st of May she fled in all haste with her second son, Richard, and her five girls, to the Abbots' Chambers in Westminster, where persons in danger had a right of *sanctuary*; that is, of a refuge made safe by the religious opinions of the time. However, all the nobles were very thankful that they had got rid of her, and on the 4th of the same month Richard was proclaimed Protector. Lord Hastings, who had a good deal to do with the affair, boasted that "this revolution had cost no more blood than a cut finger."

The King's
mother takes
sanctuary.

Richard
Protector.

Before very long Hastings seems to have been sorry for what he had done, and began to hold meetings with the Queen and her friends for the purpose of getting the King out of Richard's hands. They had several meetings about it, most of which took place in the Tower of London, where Edward had been lodged by his uncle; and we have very good reason to think that Richard knew more about them than he pretended. However, he allowed them to go on plotting for some time, while he consulted with his own friends at his house, called Crosby Place, Bishopsgate Street. On the 13th of June he went suddenly to the Tower when a council was being held, and a strange scene took place, a description of which was written afterwards by a learned man, Sir Thomas More, who became famous in the next century.

The Protector came to the Council Chamber about nine o'clock in the morning. His manner was very gracious; he blamed himself for not having come sooner, and hurrying to Morton, Bishop of Ely, said, "My lord, you have very good strawberries in your garden at Holborn. I pray you let us have a mess of them." Then he began the ordinary business of the day, and after he had spent some time in talking to the lords, he left them for a little while. About eleven o'clock he returned, and now his manner was quite changed. As he took his seat among them he frowned and knit his brow, and turning to the lords asked them "what punishment those deserved who had plotted against the life of one so nearly related to the King as himself?"

The lords were so much surprised that at first not one of them dared to speak; but at length Hastings, who had long known Richard, said that "they deserved the punishment of traitors." "See," continued Richard, "that sorceress, my brother's wife, and others with her, how they have wasted my body by their sorcery and witchcraft!" and as he spoke he uncovered his arm and showed it shrunk and

withered as it always had been. He then went on to accuse Elizabeth and a certain Jane Shore of having worked witchcraft against him; to which Hastings returned, "Certainly, my lords, if they have done so heinously they are worthy of heinous punishment." "What!" cried Richard, "dost thou serve me with ifs and ands? I tell thee they have done it, and that I will make good on thy body, traitor. I will not dine until I have seen thy head off."

With this Richard struck his hand on the table, and at the noise armed men rushed in, and with cries of "Treason!" took Hastings and Morton, Bishop of Ely, prisoners. Hastings was told to prepare at once for death. A log of wood lying on the Tower Green was made to serve for a block. On it Hastings was ordered to lay his head, which was then severed from his body.

Morton was sent to prison, and Jane Shore was made to do penance by going on Sunday through the streets in her nightgown with a taper in her hand. It is hardly likely that Richard really thought she was a witch, but he probably knew her to be a spy and a go-between, and wished to humble her.

Richard then proclaimed that Hastings and his friends had been plotting to put him and the Duke of Buckingham to death. Earl Rivers and Lord Grey were condemned to be beheaded as traitors, orders being sent to the North for their execution. These were carried out some time after.

Every one thought these acts most cruel and unjust; but no one considered them murders, as there was some reason for really believing the Queen's family to be plotting against Richard. However, he had now succeeded in putting down the plot, and having done this his next step was to make himself King instead of his nephew. So he persuaded the nobles that his other little nephew, Richard, Duke of York, ought to be sent for, that he might take care of him as well as of

Murder of
Lord
Hastings.

Doom of the
Woodvilles.

Plot of
Richard.

his brother. On the 16th of June a message was sent to the Queen, telling her to give up the boy to his uncle. The Queen must have known that it was useless to refuse, and both lads were soon together in the Tower.

The people of London were even more surprised by a sermon preached to them on Sunday, June 22nd. In those days, and long afterwards, there was a pulpit in the open ^{Dr. Shaw's sermon.} air at the corner of St. Paul's Churchyard, around which a large congregation of the citizens used to gather. On this particular Sunday a clergyman named Dr. Shaw was the preacher, and in the course of his sermon he amazed his hearers by declaring that the young King Edward was not the true heir to the throne, because his father had been engaged to marry another lady before he married Elizabeth. Dr. Shaw also said that since the Duke of Clarence had been put to death as a traitor his children could not reign, and Richard was therefore the proper King of England. While he was preaching Richard came up, as he had previously planned, and quite expected that the people would have saluted him as king. Instead of doing so, "they all stood as if turned to stone."

The next Tuesday the Duke of Buckingham made a speech in Guildhall much to the same effect, and the end was that Parliament declared Richard King of England, and some of the chief lords and knights, together with the mayor and ^{Richard made King.} aldermen of London, offered him the crown at Baynard's Castle, his mother's home, which stood by the Thames, near Blackfriars.

Thus on June 25th, 1483, the little King Edward V. ended his reign, and his uncle, Richard III., became King of England.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>1. To whom had Edward IV. left the care of his eldest son? Where was the young Edward when his father died? What was the wish of his mother's friends?—2. How were their plans overthrown by Richard? Where did Elizabeth go when she heard how her family had been treated? How did Hastings feel</p> | <p>about his share in this revolution?—3. Give an account of the manner in which Richard got rid of Hastings and his friends.—4. What was Richard's next step? What did Dr. Shaw say in his strange sermon? On what day did Edward V. end his reign?</p> |
|---|--|

CHAPTER XXX.

RICHARD III. 1483—1485.

RICHARD and his wife Anne were crowned on July 6th, 1483. The King told the people that he meant to rule them with justice and mercy, and to prove that what he said was true he sent for a man who had been his open enemy, and took him by the hand in the most friendly way. He then set out on a journey through the country, to the great pleasure of the people of the North, with whom he had always been a favourite.

But as in London plots were being made and much anxiety felt about the two little princes, Richard saw that he should not long reign in peace unless they were put out of the way. So he formed in his mind a plan for murdering the two children, and this plan he carried out, though the manner of it was not guessed until a long time afterwards. It seems that while Richard was on his journey northwards he sent a certain John Green to Sir Robert Brackenbury, the constable of the Tower of London, telling him to kill the princes. This Brackenbury refused to do, and Green brought back word to the King, who exclaimed, "Whom shall a man trust, when those in whom I thought I could most surely confide will at my command do nothing for me?"

Now it is said that a page heard Richard's words, and told him that there was a man lying in the next room who would do anything to please the King, and that this man's name was Sir James Tyrell. Then Richard sent for Tyrell, and bade him go to London, and tell Sir Robert Brackenbury to give up

to him the keys of the Tower for one night. This he did, and taking with him his own groom, John Dighton, and a man he had hired, called Miles Forest, who had charge of the princes' room, he went to the Tower to accomplish his design.

In the middle of the night Dighton and Forest crept up-stairs to the room where the two children were lying side by side fast asleep, and taking the pillows from the bed, they held them down over their mouths so that they could not breathe. Then when they were dead the two murderers called Sir James Tyrell to see their bodies, and they carried them to the foot of the stairs and there buried them. Two hundred years after, when some alterations were being made in the Tower, the skeletons of two boys were found, which nearly every one believed to be those of these two little princes.

After he had committed this murder all peace of mind seems to have left Richard. "He never," it is said, "had quiet on his mind; he never thought himself sure. When he went abroad his eyes whirled about, his hand was always on his dagger, his manner like one ever ready to strike again. He took ill rest at night, lay long waking and musing; sore wearied with care and watch, he rather slumbered than slept. Troubled with fearful dreams, sometimes he started suddenly up, leapt out of his bed, and ran about his chamber." Nor had the deed done Richard any real service; for now his old friends turned from him. The Duke of Buckingham, who had helped him to secure the throne, rebelled against him, and by the advice of Morton, Bishop of Ely, invited over Henry, Earl of Richmond.

Queen Catherine, widow of Henry V., had married a Welsh gentleman, Owen Tudor; and their son, Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, wedded Margaret Beaufort, great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt and Catherine Swynford.

In this way Henry, the son of Edmund Tudor, was descended, through his mother, from Edward III.

Remorse of
Richard.

The Tudor
family.

It was proposed that Henry, who was, of course, Lancastrian, should marry Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV., and thus unite the two Houses of York and Lancaster. But Buckingham and his friends revolted too soon; a great storm prevented Richmond from landing, and a flood of rain hindered Buckingham from joining his friends. He, as well as some other nobles, were taken and beheaded on November 2nd.

Richard now felt safe for a time, and assembled a Parliament, in which he passed several good laws. In this Parliament his title of King was confirmed, and his young son was made Prince of Wales. Richard and the Parliament.

Richard had been much alarmed at the idea of his niece Elizabeth marrying the Earl of Richmond; and in order to prevent it, he asked his brother's wife to bring her girls and come to live with him at court. It needed very strong promises to persuade her to believe his words, and it was not until Richard had sworn before the nobles in council, as well as the Lord Mayor and Aldermen of London, that he would do them no harm, but treat them as his own relations, that they would come out of their sanctuary.

On the 9th of April, 1484, Richard's only child, the little Prince Edward, died, and his wife Anne also fell sick. This was a great blow to the King, who began to fear that after all he had done to win the crown he would have no one to whom to leave it. When his Queen died, in March, 1485, the gossip of the time said he had poisoned her in order that he might marry his niece, who was engaged to the Earl of Richmond, and Richard was obliged to give a public denial to this story. Death of Richard's wife and child.
1484.

Meanwhile the Earl of Richmond was preparing to invade England, and Richard was using all his efforts to get ready an army to withstand him; but he had won, men said, "unsteadfast friendship and steadfast hatred," and this worked his ruin.

Henry at last landed on the 7th of August, 1485,

at Milford Haven, a place where Richard least expected him, and the King professed great joy at the prospect of doing battle with his enemy. Though Henry had not many followers at first, their numbers soon increased, and the men whom Richard had trusted to defend the land against the enemy went over to the other side.

The King had gathered his army together at Nottingham, and he then went on to Leicester, and fixed his camp at Bosworth Field in Leicestershire. Here, on August 22nd, 1485, was fought the battle of Bosworth. Richard rose early in the morning, looking very pale. He confessed that he had been disturbed by many fearful dreams, and that he had seen around him hosts of demons who would not let him rest. He was determined to win the day or die, and he came to the field of battle with his crown on his head. Then he made a long speech to his soldiers, and begged them, "in the strait in which they were, to fight truly for him as their rightful king and lord."

For all this the people listened much more willingly to Henry, who said he had come to free the land from a murderer and a tyrant. The Earl of Northumberland, on whose help Richard had counted, stood aside and took no part in the fight. The Stanleys went over to Henry; and Richard, seeing that he was betrayed on every side, tried to deal a blow at Henry himself. In this he might have succeeded had he not been surrounded and overcome by numbers. At last he died, pierced through with many deadly wounds. The crown he had worn when he came into the field was picked up and brought to Henry, who put it on his head, while all the army saluted him as King.

So ended the last king of the long line of Plantagenets. He deserved and he found little pity in his fall, and has been looked on ever since as an inhuman monster. Even his defects of face and figure have been exaggerated, for he was said to have been little and hunchbacked,

End of the
Plantagenet
line.



and born *with teeth*. There is no doubt that, although strong, he was a very small man, with one shoulder rather higher than the other. As for his character, when we think that from his earliest childhood he had lived in the midst of war and bloodshed, we can hardly wonder at his growing up a violent man; and for his bad training his brother Edward is the most to be blamed. It was Edward who was chiefly guilty of the murders of Henry VI. and Prince Edward; and it was Edward who caused Clarence to be put to death. No wonder that, in the end, the brother who, he thought, was true to him, should fill up the evil deeds of the House of York by the murder of Edward's own children.

But we must not imagine that even during all this period of civil war the whole of England was a scene of bloodshed. The disputes between the Houses of York and Lancaster did not very greatly affect any but the royal family, the nobles, and their tenants. The middle classes held aloof from the contest, and even amid the very hottest of the strife trade increased and the towns prospered. Indeed, it was during this period that one of the greatest events of modern times occurred. The art of printing books was brought to England by William Caxton in 1476. A busy, energetic man, he had travelled a good deal on the Continent, and had learnt at Bruges, it is said, of this new invention. His knowledge he brought back with him to this country, and about the year 1477 he set up the first printing press at Westminster.

State of the country.

William Caxton and printing. 1476.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Where did Richard go as soon as he was crowned? For what purposes were plots being formed in London?—2. Relate the whole story of the murder of the Princes. How did this deed afterwards affect Richard? Who rebelled against him?—3. What was the descent of Henry, Earl of Richmond? What was the fate of the Duke of Buckingham?—4. Why did Richard persuade Elizabeth and her daughters

to quit their sanctuary? What did the goossips of the time say when his wife Anne died?—5. Where, and on what day, did Henry land? Give an account of the battle of Bosworth.—6. What was the character of Richard III.?—7. What was the state of England during these wars?—8. When was the art of printing introduced into England, and by whom? Where did he set up the first printing press?

PART III.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF HENRY VII. TO THE REVOLUTION.

1485—1688-9.

CHAPTER XXXI.

HENRY VII. 1485—1509.

HENRY VII. was the means of uniting the two rival families which had so long been quarrelling over their rights; and this brings us to the beginning of quite a new era in the History of England. What we call the Middle Ages ended about the same time as the Wars of the Roses; and as these wars had almost destroyed the old nobility, who had been hitherto a great check on the power of the kings, the latter were able to obtain far more authority than they had previously done, and so began a despotic system of government, or government by will of the sovereign, which led in the end to a great civil war.

Henry was a cool and cautious man, whose chief desire was to gather together as much money and treasure as he could. He liked everything he did to be shrouded in mystery; and throughout his reign he showed a great dislike to the House of York.

Although Henry had promised to marry Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV., he put off doing so—rather to the dismay of the people, who were afraid all the disputes might begin again. The truth was, Henry had made up his mind to wait for his marriage until the Par-

Growth of
the power of
the Crown.

Character of
Henry VII.

Marriage of
the King.

liament had settled the throne on him and his heirs, as he did not wish to feel that he owed the crown to his wife. When this had been done, the King sent to ask the consent of the Pope, and when he had obtained it the wedding took place. The people showed so much joy at the event that Henry grew jealous of Elizabeth, and would not at first allow her to be crowned.

This behaviour caused a good deal of discontent, and plots began to be formed against the King. The news of the first of these plots was received by Henry while he was travelling through the North of England. Lord Lovel, who had been in the service of Richard III., had planned with the Staffords, who were cousins of the Duke of Buckingham, and had been declared traitors by Henry, to take the King prisoner while he was going from Pontefract to York.

Conspiracy
of Lord
Lovel.
1486.

Henry at once sent his uncle Jasper, Duke of Bedford, offering to forgive all who would lay down their arms; and so many deserted their leaders that Lord Lovel was obliged to escape to Flanders as quickly as he could. The two Staffords fled for safety to a church in a little village called Colnhaim, near Abingdon. The elder was taken from this sanctuary by force, and executed as a traitor at Tyburn; but the younger was forgiven, because he said he had only obeyed his brother.

In 1487 a much stranger plot was formed against the King. Edward IV.'s brother Clarence had left a son who had received the title of Earl of Warwick. This boy had all his life been shut up in the Tower through the jealousy, first of Richard, and afterwards of Henry. Suddenly a report was spread that Warwick had escaped, and soon afterwards a certain Oxford priest, whose name was Richard Simons, landed at Dublin with a boy of fifteen, who was said to be the Earl of Warwick. This boy's name was really Lambert Simnel, and his father was a joiner at Oxford; so that the idea in the minds of the leaders of the plot seems to have been,

Lambert
Simnel.
1487.

first, to take the crown from Henry, and then make the real Earl of Warwick king. They were afraid of letting the people know their design, as it might put the life of Warwick in danger.

When the news of this plot reached the King he at once assembled a great council of lords and bishops. They determined to show the real Earl of Warwick before all the people at St. Paul's, to convince them that Lambert Simnel was an impostor. The earl was afterwards taken to the palace, where he talked every day to any of the nobles who came to visit the royal family. This soon had the desired effect.

But Henry was still more surprised by hearing that the Earl of Lincoln had gone to join Simnel at Dublin with two thousand German soldiers, lent to him by his aunt Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy. This earl was the son of the eldest sister of Edward IV., and Richard III., after his own son's death, had named him heir to the crown. The Earl of Lincoln must have known that Simnel was not the boy he pretended to be, for he himself had often talked to the real Warwick. Nevertheless, he advised his followers to have him crowned, and this was accordingly done by the Bishop of Meath, while a large army of rebellious English, wild Irish, and hired Germans was collected wherewith to invade England. They landed at Furness, in Lancashire, and marched through Yorkshire, very few joining their ranks.

Henry, on his part, collected his soldiers at Kenilworth, which was the Queen's palace, and hastened to Newark, where he met the rebels, and after a battle, which was fiercely contested but quickly over, he won a most decided victory. The Earl of Lincoln and the other leaders were killed, but the priest Simon and Lambert Simnel fell into the King's hands. They confessed their guilt, and Simon was put in prison. Lambert himself received Henry's forgiveness, and was made a scullion in the royal kitchen.

Simnel
crowned in
Ireland.

Simnel in
England.

End of the
Rebellion.

In the course of this rebellion Henry learned that he had made a mistake in not treating his wife with more honour; and as his people were very angry at his neglect to have her crowned, he consented that this should now be done.

Freed for a time from his home troubles, Henry had to give his mind to business ^{Foreign} ^{affairs.} abroad. France, which at first had belonged to a number of feudal lords, had by degrees come almost entirely into the possession of one king, the only ^{France.} province which still had a sovereign duke of its own being Brittany. This province Charles VIII., the King of France, was very anxious to join to his own kingdom; and when the Duke of Brittany died, leaving a daughter, Anne, he at once made war on her. Anne sent to Henry to beg for his aid. But both the King of France and Anne's father had helped Henry when he was Earl of Richmond, and therefore he did not know how to act. He felt obliged to send Anne six thousand soldiers, though at the same time he made her promise to give up to him two strong fortresses, and not to marry any one without his leave. He also agreed with Charles, that if the latter paid him a sum of money, no active war should be made against him. So the English soldiers, after a short absence, came home again, having done nothing.

Meanwhile Anne, with Henry's leave, engaged herself to marry Maximilian, the Emperor of Germany. This so enraged Charles that he went himself with an army into Brittany, besieged Anne at Rennes, and told her he should put her in prison if she did not become his wife. After a time Anne felt obliged to consent, and she married Charles (1496), Brittany thus becoming part of France.

Henry had professed to be very angry at this action of Charles, declared war against him in 1491, and crossed over to Calais with an army of twenty-six thousand men. But in the ^{Invasion of} ^{France.} meantime he had sent to treat for peace ^{1491.} : with Charles, who agreed to give him £149,000 a

year. Having got the promise of this sum of money, Henry, with his army, returned home.

During the King's absence his enemies had concocted another plot against him. They pretended that the younger of Edward IV.'s sons, whom Richard was supposed to have murdered, had escaped from the Tower and was still alive; and they chose a young man, whose name was Perkin Warbeck, to act his part. This lad landed first at Cork (1492), calling himself Richard Plantagenet, and his story gained the belief of many persons. He then went to France and was received as the real Duke of York; but he was soon dismissed when the agreement mentioned above was made between the Kings of England and of France.

Warbeck next sought Edward IV.'s sister Margaret, the widow of the Duke of Burgundy, who at once said he was her nephew, and gave him her support.

The Yorkists then sent over Sir Robert Clifford to find out if Warbeck were really the person he professed to be, and he returned word that he was indeed the Duke of York. Many people in England, hearing this, began to believe in him also and joined his party. Henry meanwhile sent spies about the country, who soon discovered the names of the leaders of the plot, so that several nobles were put to death as traitors.

This rather alarmed Warbeck's followers, and Warbeck himself felt it time for him to make a great effort. He tried to land at Deal. In this he failed, and was once more obliged to return to Flanders. He soon found that he could not stay there, for the Duke of Flanders and Henry had agreed that neither of them should give shelter to the enemies of the other. Next he sailed to Ireland. From Ireland he went to Scotland, where the King, James IV., received him as the real Duke of York, and gave him Lady Catherine Gordon, a relation of his, for his wife.

Perkin
Warbeck.
1492-
1499.

Perkin
Warbeck
received in
Scotland.
1495.

James then, in 1496, gathered together an army to invade England, hoping the English might rise; but the people did not care to fight for Warbeck, and Henry having made a peace for seven years with James, Perkin was obliged to leave this country also. For a time he wandered about in Ireland, but gained nothing. At last he thought ^{Warbeck in Cornwall.} he would try his fortunes in Cornwall, as ^{1497.} he knew the people there were rather discontented.

He landed at Penzance in 1497, and, taking on himself the title of Richard IV., was soon ^{His capture.} joined by six thousand men. With this army he laid siege to Exeter, but failed to take it; afterwards he went on to Taunton, but hearing that Henry was approaching, he ran away and took shelter in Beaulieu Abbey in Hampshire.

The rebels now felt that they had better submit to the King. He hanged some of the leaders but forgave the rest, while to Warbeck he offered pardon if he would give himself up as a prisoner. Warbeck accordingly surrendered to the royal mercy, and Henry did not break his word. Warbeck was taken to London 1498, and for about six months he remained a prisoner there, though not closely shut up. Getting tired of this sort of life he tried to escape, and failing, he was made to stand for a whole day in the stocks, and read a paper in which he confessed he was an impostor. After this he was sent to the Tower. Here he found means of seeing and speaking to the Earl of Warwick, who was also imprisoned there. The two young men planned to escape. Their design was, however, discovered; and Henry, fearing constant troubles from Warbeck, as well as from the Earl of Warwick, determined that they should both be put to death. Warbeck was, therefore, hanged at Tyburn, and Warwick beheaded a few days later, in November, 1499.

Having thus overcome his foes, Henry's great effort was to settle his family firmly on the throne, and to hoard up as much money as he could. With a view to strengthen his position he married

his eldest daughter, Margaret, to James IV. of Scotland, whose descendants afterwards came to reign over England; and for his eldest son, Arthur, he obtained as a wife Catherine of Aragon, the daughter of Ferdinand, King of Spain. Spain was a great and proud nation at this time, and thought England much honoured by this marriage. Prince Arthur died in 1502, when

Margaret and James IV. of Scotland. he was only sixteen, and as Catherine had brought a large dower with her, Henry did not wish her to return to her father, but proposed that she should marry his second son, Prince Henry. This was against the law of the Church, and Henry had to ask leave from the Pope before the marriage could take place. Permission

Prince Henry and Catherine of Aragon. was soon obtained, and Catherine was betrothed to young Henry, now Prince of Wales, before he was thirteen years of age.

1502. Henry VII. had one other daughter, who was twice married; the first time to Louis XII., the King of France, the second to a simple nobleman, Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

Mary and Charles, Duke of Suffolk. These marriages should be borne in mind, as three of them had an important influence on after times.

As Henry's claim to the throne was not good at first, and only made so afterwards by Parliament, he was very anxious not to do anything which would seem like breaking the law; but he was so careful and saving that he was not often obliged to ask his people for money, and thus had not much need to call Parliaments.

Wealth of Henry VII. But besides being careful of his own expenses, Henry hoarded up a large sum which he obtained with the help of two men, whose names

Empson and Dudley. were Empson and Dudley, and who were created by him barons of the exchequer.

These men made it their business to rake up old and bad laws, which had been long forgotten, and to fine people for not obeying them. They also used to sell the high offices of state, and would even allow

those who had done wrong to go free if they paid them money. They kept spies all over the country, who would let them know at once if any one broke the least point of the law.

Henry always endeavoured to keep a firm hand over the nobles, but he favoured the middle classes, and did much to encourage trade. He passed a law forbidding his nobles to ^{The King and the nobles.} have many servants or retainers, because they had been in the habit of taking numbers of men into their service, and giving them their own livery to wear, after which these men were bound to fight in their quarrels. This had been very often done in the Wars of the Roses, and Henry wished to put a stop to it.

It is said the King went one day to stay as a guest with the Earl of Oxford, and saw drawn up in the hall in two long lines a great many men in the Earl's livery. "My lord," said Henry, "I have heard much of your hospitality, but I see it is even greater than your speech. These handsome gentlemen and yeomen that I see on each side of me are surely your menial servants." "They are most of them my retainers," returned the Earl, "come to do me service at a time like this, and chiefly to see your grace." "By my faith," was Henry's answer, "I thank you for your good cheer, but I may not endure to see my laws broken in my sight; my attorney must speak to you." For this offence the Earl was compelled to pay the King a fine of £10,000.

In order to enforce the laws against the nobles, Henry revived an old court of law called the Court of the Star Chamber. It was in existence in the reign of William the Conqueror, when it was used chiefly to extort money from the ^{The Star Chamber.} Jews. Its name, "Star Chamber," is said to be derived from a Hebrew word for a bond.* In its cases were tried and sentences pro-

* The supposed derivation from stars on the ceiling is erroneous. The chamber had the name long before its ceiling was so decorated, even if it ever was so.

nounced, not in the usual way, before a jury, but by certain nobles (members of the King's Privy Council and two chief justices). Although this court had no power to condemn a man to death, it might fine, imprison, and torture. After Henry's death it became one of the chief means by which the sovereigns oppressed their subjects.

Meanwhile some events very important to England had been occurring in other lands. In 1492 Columbus landed at San Salvador, one of the Bahama Isles, and made the first entrance into the New World; in 1498 he discovered Trinidad, on the banks of the Orinoco, and Paria, in South America. Columbus had been fitted out by the King of Spain, so Spain had the first claim on the Western World; but others followed, and the mainland of North America was discovered in 1497 by Sebastian Cabot, a Bristol sailor of Spanish descent, whom Henry himself had sent out.

Another important feature of this age was that the attention of men was turned to learning, and in this way. The Turks had taken Constantinople in 1451, and turned many of the Greeks who lived there out of their homes. These Greeks had then sought safety in Italy, and taken with them many of their rare and precious books, which the Italians were very glad to read and enjoy, as in Italy, more than in any other land, learning was loved and valued. At Florence, especially, several learned men busied themselves with collecting all the best of the old Greek and Roman books they could lay their hands on, and printing them at a little printing press of their own. This was the beginning of what is called the "Revival of Learning," and it was soon followed by a revival in religion; for a great preacher, whose name was Savonarola, arose in Florence and spoke boldly against the wickedness of men, and the need there was that they should mend their ways.

Pope Alexander VI., who was reigning at this time, was one of the worst men who ever lived, and

he did not like what Savonarola said. So he caused him to be taken prisoner, tortured that he might confess he was in the wrong, and then burned to death in 1498. This, however, did not stop men's thoughts, but only made the Pope hated all the more.

While these events were passing, John Colet, a young Englishman, the son of the Lord Mayor of London, went to Florence. Colet kept his ears open, and so learned a great deal while John Colet. he was there; and when he came home he was full of love for the New Learning. He began, in 1499, to lecture on the Epistles of St. Paul in Oxford, and delighted all the young men by his clear way of teaching difficult things. Two men especially were attracted by him; the name of the one was Erasmus, and of the other Thomas More.

Erasmus came from Rotterdam. His father and mother had died when he was only a little baby, and those to whose care he was left had put him into a monastery and tried to make a monk of him against his will. However, Erasmus had no great Erasmus. love for the priests, though he was very anxious to learn. As soon as he was of age he left the monastery and went to Paris. When he had learnt all he could there he turned towards Oxford. There he met Colet, who begged him to stay with him and help him in his teaching. But although Erasmus was by this time thirty years old, he did not yet know Greek, and he made up his mind to go to Florence as Colet had done before him. He was too poor then to make the effort, and it was not until 1505 that Colet and his friends were able to help him.

Thomas More was some years younger than Colet and Erasmus, but his love for learning was quite as great. Unlike his other two Thomas More. friends, he married and had a wife and children of his own, whom he loved very dearly.

King Henry did very little to encourage learning; and in 1509 he died, and was buried by the side of his wife at Westminster, in the beautiful chapel

begun by him in 1502. This building was erected on the site of a chapel dedicated to the Virgin Mary by Henry III., and was adorned by Henry VII.'s the most beautiful workmanship, costing, it is said, about £14,000 to build. A splendid tomb stands over Henry and his Queen, and down to a recent time the sovereigns of England have been laid near them.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. How did Henry VII. unite the rival families of York and Lancaster? What was the reason that the Crown obtained at this period more authority than it had previously possessed? Why did Henry at first put off marrying Elizabeth?—2. Give an account first of the conspiracy of Lord Lovel, and then of Lambert Simnel. What did Henry learn in the course of this rebellion?—3. What provinces of France remained at this time under a sovereign duke? Who sought Henry's aid on the death of his father, and why? In what manner did Henry act? How did Charles VIII. on his part manage to get his own way?—4. In what year did Henry invade France? How did he evade making war?—5. Describe the conspiracy of Perkin Warbeck and the Earl of Warwick.—6. Name the marriages of Henry's children.—7. What effect had Henry's doubtful claim to the throne on his conduct? How did he obtain money from his subjects, and who helped him?—8. What class of persons did Henry favour? What law did he pass in order to check the power of the nobles? Mention an anecdote which shows how he put this law in force.—9. What court of law did Henry revive to enforce the laws against the nobles? How long had it been in existence? In what way did it differ from other courts of justice?—10. Mention some events important to all the world which took place at this time.—11. How did the capture of Constantinople in 1451 lead to the revival of learning? By what was it soon followed? Who was Savonarola? By whom was he condemned to death? Give the date of his martyrdom.—12. What Englishman was staying at Florence while these events were passing? What effect did they have on him? What two men were especially attracted by him?—13. Where was Henry buried? Give an account of the chapel built by him.

CHAPTER XXXII.

HENRY VIII. 1509—1547.

ALL the people were very glad when Henry VIII., at sixteen years of age, came to the throne; for his father had, by his great love of money, lost the affection of his subjects; and the young prince was handsome, brave, and fond of learning. Empson and Dudley were thrown into prison on the charge of having plotted to seize the government for themselves, and most unjustly condemned to die as traitors. But this action only made Henry more admired, as both these men had won the hatred of every one by their dishonest dealings.

Colet and his friends, too, began to hope for better days, as they knew that Henry was friendly to them and to their ideas. They were not disappointed, for Colet, who was Dean of St. Paul's, was made Court Preacher; Thomas More, under-sheriff; and Erasmus, when he returned from Italy, was sent to Cambridge to teach Greek.

For some years past these three learned men had been working hard. They had read the Bible; they had also read many other books written long ago by Greeks and Romans; and this had caused them to think. They could now see clearly that the faith which Christ and his Apostles taught was very unlike that in which the people around them believed. They were also much shocked when they saw that many of the bishops, priests, and monks, instead of doing their duty, and trying to teach men and women to lead good and

useful lives, only cared for their own pleasures or for getting on well in the world. Colet and his friends thought, and thought rightly, that real true faith ought to make men love instead of hating each other; and Colet boldly preached that it was worse to lead a wicked, worldly life than to believe as did the Lollards, whom the bishops were so fond of persecuting.

This made the bishops very angry, and they began to say that Colet himself was a heretic. However, he did not care for that, and went boldly on as before. When Colet's father died he came into some money, and this money he made up his mind to use for the good of others. He knew that many children were taught very badly, that the books they learned

from were extremely difficult to understand, and their masters often cruel and
St. Paul's School.
 1512.

stupid men, who, instead of explaining a boy's lesson to him, would flog him because he could not learn it. Of course this was not the way to make children care for books; so Colet, in 1510, began, close by St. Paul's Cathedral, a school of his own, which he determined should be on quite a new plan. He persuaded some of his friends to help him with the teaching. Erasmus set to work to write school-books; and as Colet could not find a Latin grammar which he thought easy enough for young children, he wrote one himself, and asked his boys in return "to lift up their little white hands for him."

While Colet was busy with his school Erasmus was hard at work with an edition of the New Testament, which, in 1516, was printed at Basle.

The New Testament of Erasmus.
 1516.

In this edition Erasmus placed side by side with the same Greek words in which it was first written a new Latin translation of his own, so that many people were now able to read the very words of Christ and of his Apostles.

Besides his edition of the New Testament, Erasmus wrote several books, in which he drew men's minds to the need there was of reform in the Church. In one of them, called "The Praise of Folly," he

laughed at priests and bishops, and even at the Pope, and spoke of monks being shut out from the kingdom of heaven, while poor husbandmen and waggoners were allowed to enter. "Praise of Folly."
1509.

About 1515 More became attached to the court of Henry VIII., and wrote a book in Latin called "Utopia." Utopia is a Greek word, which means "nowhere;" and this book is a description of a happy, well-ruled country, where the aim of the people is, that not only the princes and nobles, but every one may live in comfort; where all can read and write; war is hated as a terrible evil, and no one is punished or treated badly on account of his differing from the others in his faith. Many of the things which More longed for have now come to pass; but for some we have still to work and wait. "Utopia."
1515.

Colet, Erasmus, More, and their friends, although they saw clearly that not only the Church but the doings of kings and nobles needed to be reformed, never imagined that England would separate from the Pope, as it did soon after. To them a quarrel among Christian people was a thing to be shunned at all risks; and when others arose, and went further in making changes than they had done, these first reformers drew back, and one of them even suffered death in consequence.

A very few weeks after he came to the throne Henry married the Spanish Princess Catherine, who had been betrothed to him by his father when he was only twelve. She was six years older than the King, and some people still thought that, as Catherine was the widow of Henry's brother Arthur, they ought not to be married. However, the King told his subjects that his wife and brother had never been really married, but only engaged, and also that the Pope had given leave for this wedding to take place. This satisfied every one, and for many years Henry and Catherine seem to have been very fond Marriage of the King to Catherine of Aragon.
1509.

of each other. Several children were born to them, but they all died, except one daughter, when quite babies, much to Henry's sorrow.

At length it began to be feared that there would be no one left to come to the throne when Henry died, and that this might lead to another dreadful war like the War of the Roses.

Uncertainty
of the suc-
cession to the
throne.

Henry's chief minister during the early part of his reign was Thomas Wolsey, the son of a wealthy townsman of Ipswich. Possessed of great talent and ambition, Wolsey was able to rise from being fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford, to the very highest dignity in Church and State, becoming in 1514 Archbishop of York, in 1515 Chancellor, and in 1516 receiving from the Pope the title of Cardinal.

Thomas
Wolsey.
1514—
1530.

The wealth of Wolsey was enormous, and the state he kept almost kingly. It is said that his household was composed of five hundred nobles, and he was waited on by knights and barons. Two houses built by him, Hampton Court and York House, afterwards called Whitehall, were so splendid that they became royal palaces, while he also founded a school at Ipswich and a college at Oxford.

The wonderful power Wolsey possessed was used by him chiefly for the purpose of increasing Henry's authority, and by his influence the despotism, of which we spoke in the last chapter, grew rapidly.

In 1513 Henry was drawn by his father-in-law, Ferdinand, King of Spain, into a war with France. He won on August 16th, near Guinegate, a battle called the Battle of the Spurs, because the enemy fled so quickly from the field. But on the whole the campaign was not a very successful one, and while the King was absent from England, the Scotch took the opportunity of invading the northern counties. Henry hastened home, but in the meantime Thomas Howard,

Battle of
the Spurs.

the Earl of Surrey, had fought, on September 9th, the battle of Flodden Field, in which the Scotch King, James IV., was defeated and slain, with many of the best and bravest of his nobles. Flodden Field.

In 1514 peace was made with France, and Louis XII. married Henry's sister Mary. On the death of Louis, his successor, Francis I., tried to keep up the friendly feeling of France with England, by arranging a meeting near Guines between himself and Henry. Field of the Cloth of Gold. At this interview both Kings displayed so much grandeur, that the place at which it was held was called the "Field of the Cloth of Gold." 1520.

Wolsey was very anxious that this peace should continue, as he knew that war could not be waged without money, and he dreaded being obliged to assemble a Parliament to ask for it. In 1516 Ferdinand, King of Spain, died, and was succeeded by his son, Charles V., who was also in 1519 elected Emperor of Germany. Through his advice and influence Henry gave up the French alliance, and began, in 1522, Renewal of the claim on Guienne. a war with France by setting up the old claim of England to the duchy of Guienne. 1522.

To meet the expenses of this war Wolsey had at first recourse to exacting money from the citizens of London, and demanding from the counties either supplies of soldiers or a tenth of each man's yearly income. Illegal taxation. When he found that these measures did not bring in sufficient for his necessities, he assembled a Parliament in 1523, and demanded from it in person a large sum. His request was received in perfect silence. Resistance of Parliament. When at length Wolsey 1523. appealed to Sir Thomas More, the Speaker* of the House, the latter fell on his knees, declaring that he had no power to reply until he had instructions to do so from the House. Unable to frighten Parliament

* The Speaker was and is elected by the House of Commons to act as their mouthpiece and to maintain order.

into giving him the money desired, Wolsey went back to the old unlawful methods of taxation; but rich and poor were agreed in opposition to the Cardinal, declaring "that if men should give their goods by commission, then would it be worse than the taxes of France, and England should be bond and not free."

This second French war was not much more successful than the former one, and in 1525 peace was again made, by Francis agreeing to pay Henry a sum of money every year.

Peace
restored.
1525.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Why was the accession of Henry VIII. hailed with so much satisfaction? What was the fate of Empson and Dudley?—2. How did Henry show his admiration for Colet and his friends? Why did Colet's preaching make the bishops angry? How did he help on the cause of education?—3. Mention some of the works of Erasmus. With what purpose were they written? What book did Sir Thomas More write? Explain its subject. What was the feeling of Colet, Erasmus, More, and their friends about the separation of the Church of England from the Pope?—4. Whom did Henry marry? In what way did he satisfy the doubts of his subjects? What caused it to be feared that there might be further disputes about the succession?—5. Who was Henry's chief Minister during the early years of his reign? To what high dignities was he raised? Mention the dates of his preferments.—6. Name the places he built, and the educational establishments he founded. For what purpose did Wolsey use the great power which he possessed?—7. By whom and with whom was Henry drawn into a war in 1513? Give the date of the battle of the Spurs. Why was it so called? Who took the opportunity of invading England during Henry's absence, and with what result?—8. In what year was peace made, and what marriage then took place? How did Francis I. try to keep up the friendly feeling between France and England? What reason had Wolsey for wishing this peace to continue?—9. When did Ferdinand, King of Spain, die? By whom was he succeeded? Of what country was he elected Emperor? Give the date. What old claim did Henry set up through his influence?—10. To what measures had Wolsey recourse to meet the expenses of this war? How did he act when he found these measures insufficient? How was his request received?—11. When was peace again made with France, and on what conditions?

CHAPTER XXXIII.

HENRY VIII. (*continued*). 1509—1549.

MEANWHILE there had begun in Germany a movement in the Church which was to have great influence on this country. In 1517 the Pope, Leo X., was in want of money, and determined to get it by selling ^{The Reformation in Germany.} *indulgences*. The people believed that it was in the power of the Pope to grant pardons for sins, and Leo offered that any person who wanted forgiveness for anything he had done amiss might obtain it by sending a little money to him towards building a new church to St. Peter in Rome.

These indulgences were sent throughout Germany and sold by travelling monks. A Dominican friar, named Tetzl, came with them to the town of Wittemberg, where Martin Luther, a ^{Martin Luther.} young Augustinian monk, was professor of a new university under the Elector of Saxony. Luther knew these indulgences were only sold by the Pope because he wanted money, and he resolved to make a stand against them. So he wrote a paper of ninety-five short *theses*, or statements of opinion on the subject, and nailed it up against the door of the principal church in Wittemberg. This was the beginning of what we call the Reformation of religion.

When Leo X. heard of Luther's action, he tried at first to win him from his views by fair words; but failing in his efforts, he sent forth what was called a *Bull** against him, that is, he ordered his

* This word is from the Latin *bulia*, a little ball. It was applied to a solemn edict of the Pope, because of the seals that were attached to it like hanging balls.

books to be burnt by the hangman, and declared that he would be excommunicated if he did not repent within six days. Luther replied by publicly burning the Pope's Bull on the 10th of December, 1520.

To answer for his conduct, Luther was ordered to attend a great meeting or *Diet*, which was to be held at the town of Worms in April, 1521. To this Diet came Charles V., the newly-elected Emperor, and the chief nobles and princes of Germany. Before them all Luther was asked if he would give up the opinions he held and submit to the Pope. He replied that to nothing but the Bible would he ever submit, and exclaimed, "Here I stand; I can do no other. God help me."

Although the Emperor and many German princes would have liked to get rid of Luther as a heretic and rebel, they were afraid to do so on account of his great popularity. He was also protected by the Elector of Saxony. His judges, therefore, were forced to give him leave to return home. His friends, knowing him to be nevertheless in extreme danger, took him prisoner and shut him up for safety in the castle of Wartburg. Here he stayed some months, spending his time in translating the Old and New Testaments into German.

From that time Luther's opinions continued to spread; other Reformers sprang up, and in England many persons began to read Luther's works, and to wonder whether he were right or wrong. Copies of the Bible were sought for, and in 1525 William Tyndale made an English translation of the Scriptures, had it printed at Worms, and secretly brought to England. Other translations followed, but Tyndale's was the one most used for a time.

At first Henry took part with the Pope and opposed Luther, and while the Diet of Worms, was being held he wrote a book against him, for which the Pope gave Henry the title of "Defender of the Faith."

Diet of
Worms.
1521.

Tyndale's
Bible.
1525.

King Henry,
"Defender of
the Faith."

As yet Charles V. had professed great affection for Henry and Henry's chief minister, Cardinal Wolsey. It was Wolsey's wish to be made Pope, and Charles promised to help him to realise his ambition.

Henry and
Charles V.

But when Leo X. died Charles broke his word, and another man was chosen as Pope instead of Wolsey. Charles had also engaged to marry the Princess Mary, Henry's daughter, while all the time he had been planning to obtain the hand of a Portuguese princess. When these things came to the ears of the King of England he was both vexed and disappointed.

Henry had in the meantime met a beautiful young lady, whose name was Anne Boleyn, and whom he thought he would like better to have for a wife than his own Catherine, who was six years older than himself. He considered the subject a long time, and at last said he was afraid that he had done very wrong when he married the Queen, as she had been his brother's betrothed, and that the loss of his children had been a judgment on him for breaking the law.

Anne
Boleyn.
1532-
1536.

Henry then set Wolsey to work to persuade the Pope to give him leave to send away Catherine and to marry another woman. The Pope did not like to refuse, but, on the other hand, he did not wish to offend Charles, who was Catherine's nephew; so he delayed his answer from time to time until several years had passed. At length we are told that Thomas Cranmer, a tutor at Cambridge, advised the King to get the opinion of all the learned men in the different colleges in Europe on the matter; and Henry, saying that Cranmer "had got the right sow by the ear," followed his advice. The colleges were generally in favour of Henry; and in 1532 he took the matter into his own hands, married Anne, and declared Catherine to be no longer his wife, while his daughter Mary was forbidden to make in future any claim to the English crown.

Meanwhile Wolsey's behaviour with respect to

taxation had made him very unpopular, especially as the King, when complaints were made to him on the subject, threw all the blame on the minister. Henry had also become discontented with his favourite for not having helped him to obtain a divorce from Catherine; and in 1529, when the abuses in the Church were being discussed, Wolsey was accused before Parliament of having used the authority given him by the Pope contrary to the interests of the King. He was accordingly dismissed from his high power, and allowed to retain only the Archbishopric of York, to which town he returned in 1530.

Here Wolsey continued to keep up his accustomed state, but his influence among the northern nobles awakened the suspicion of the court. He was arrested for high treason, and was travelling to London to answer the charge when he fell ill of a fever, and died at Leicester Abbey. We are told some of his last words were, "Had I but served my God as I have served my King, He would not have given me over in my grey hairs."

Henry's treatment of Catherine, and his marriage with Anne Boleyn, caused a quarrel between him and the Pope, and led the King to side with those who were anxious for a reform in the Church. To forward it many new laws were passed in Parliament. An end was put to the payment of large sums of money to Rome. People were no longer to be burnt for speaking against the Pope; and lastly, in 1534, the obedience which had as yet been given to the Pope was transferred to Henry, who took the title of "Head of the Church of England."

But the men who had begun the reform of the Church in England drew back when they saw the way in which Henry was acting. Sir Thomas More thought the King wrong in disobeying the Pope and in putting away his first wife. He, therefore, refused to see Anne crowned, or to give Henry the honour he had always given to the Pope. For this refusal Sir

Fall of
Wolsey.
1529-
1530.

Reformation
in England.

Execution of
Flower and
More.
1535.

Thomas More, with Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, were sent to the Tower of London, and in 1535, condemned to die.

More had been a kind husband and loving father, and his friends and relatives were very much distressed at the King's hard sentence. His wife often came to see him while he remained in prison, and he would try to cheer her by asking, "Is not this house as nigh heaven as mine own?" His daughter Margaret, whom he loved most fondly, would also often visit him; yet he never showed himself aught but brave and manly. At length the day came when he was to be executed, and he was awakened from his sleep and told to prepare for death. He heard the news quite calmly, saying, "I am much bounden to the King for the benefits and honours he has bestowed upon me; and, so help me God, most of all am I bounden to him that it pleaseth his Majesty to rid me shortly out of the miseries of this present world."

At nine o'clock he was led from the Tower, bearing in his hands a red cross; but when he came to the scaffold he felt it shake as he placed his foot upon it.

"See me safe up," he said; "for my coming down I can shift for myself." Then he began to speak to the people, but was forbidden to go on, and so only asked them to "pray for him and bear witness that he died true to the Holy Catholic Church, and a faithful servant of God and the King." Then the executioner begged him to forgive him for what he was going to do, and More turned and kissed him, telling him to "pluck up his spirits and not be afraid to do his office." Just as the blow which should cut off his head was going to fall he moved away his beard, saying, "Pity that should be cut that has not committed treason."

Colet had died in 1519, but Erasmus, who was now old and in bad health, heard of Sir Thomas More's death with great sorrow. Nor did he live more than a few months after. In 1536 he too died, and was buried at Basle.

Thus the early Reformers passed away; but their

work was continued by others, though often in a very rough and rude fashion. For many years the people had made complaints against the monks; and Henry, having got his own way with the higher clergy, determined now to deal a blow at them.

Suppression
of monas-
teries.
1536—
1539.

The minister who had taken the place of Wolsey was called Thomas Cromwell. He had formerly been in the service of the Cardinal, but his plans were very different from those of his late master. He was opposed to the monasteries, and in after times gained the nickname of the "Hammer of the Monks." Cromwell had a very decided liking for the new ideas, and took much pleasure in carrying out Henry's orders. He sent persons round to visit all the monasteries, and to find out if what men said of them was true.

Thomas
Cromwell.
1530—
1540.

Every monk when he began what he called his religious life promised always to remain poor, to obey his superior, and never to marry. He was to spend all his time in the service of God, in prayer, in preaching, in listening to the confessions of those who had sinned, and in helping them to lead better lives. The monks and nuns also taught the children and tended the sick; and, therefore, many rich people were glad to give them money and lands, especially as they believed by so doing they themselves would get a higher place in heaven. Thus for many years the monks and nuns had done a very great deal of good, and had ministered to the needs of the times; but having, through the gifts of others, grown very rich, some of them became lazy and idle, and took to drinking and other bad ways, making the people among whom they lived worse instead of better. Indeed, Cromwell brought such an evil report of them before Parliament that it is said the cry of "Down with them! down with them!" was heard on every side.

Corruption
of the
monasteries.

Henry was not slow to follow this advice. In 1536 all the smaller monasteries were put down, and in 1539 the larger ones were broken up. Oxford also was visited, and the

Oxford
reformed.

teaching there improved; new books were introduced, and many of the old ones torn up and thrown away as waste paper. A Bible, ^{Chained} fastened by a chain, was also placed by ^{Bibles.} Henry's orders in every church.

But the people in the North and in other parts of England did not like all these sudden changes. They could not alter, at the King's command, the faith in which they had been trained. ^{The} And when the simple country folk saw the ^{"Pilgrimage of Grace."} shrines destroyed at which they had so ^{1537.} often prayed, the abbeys and the monasteries pulled down, and the monks and nuns turned into the streets, they grew mad with anger and alarm. In 1537 they rose, led by their parish priests, and, carrying flags and crosses, they marched along, their forces increasing as they went until they grew to about forty thousand in number. Robert Aske, a lawyer, of Doncaster, and many nobles and abbots joined them; and as the rising was a religious one, they called it the "Pilgrimage of Grace." They were, however, opposed and conquered by the Duke of Norfolk. Aske and other leaders were put to death.

Henry's first wife, Catherine, died in 1536, her death being due to Henry's treatment of her. Her rival Anne, it is said, rejoiced at the news, but her joy did not last long. Henry ^{Henry's} soon grew suspicious of her. She was ^{marriages.} accused of unfaithfulness to the King, and put to death for treason, May 19th, 1536. Anne left one little girl called Elizabeth. The day after Anne's execution the King married Jane ^{Jane} Seymour, ^{Seymour.} and by her he had, to his great ^{1536.} delight, a son, who was named Edward. ^{Died} ^{1537.} Jane Seymour only lived a few days after the boy's birth, and the King at once began to look out for a fourth wife.

His adviser, Cromwell, now determined to arrange a marriage between the King and Anne of Cleves, a princess who was attached to the ^{Anne of} ^{Cleves.} new doctrines. Henry never saw his ^{1539.} bride until she came to England, and was very dis-

appointed to find her coarse and plain, and quite unable to speak a word of English. However, he married her, but he never forgave Cromwell for his part in the matter. Before long he determined to bring about his ruin.

Fall of Thomas Cromwell. 1540. In 1540 Cromwell, as Sir Thomas More, Anne Boleyn, and others before him, was accused of treason, and with little show of justice condemned to death.

After the fall of Cromwell, the Roman Catholic party that was opposed to reform, and of which Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, was the chief leader, was again taken into favour by the King, and through its influence various persecuting laws were passed. Owing to this several persons were put to death for their belief in the new teaching. Among these was a young lady named Anne Ascue, who was burnt to death in Smithfield, in 1546, for not believing that the bread and wine taken at the Sacrament were the real body and blood of Jesus Christ.

Henry soon parted from his wife Anne of Cleves, who seems to have easily contented herself with receiving a pension of £3,000 a year. He next married a beautiful girl called Catherine Howard, but a year and a half after their marriage she, too, was beheaded, while Catherine Parr, a clever widow, became his sixth and last wife. She seems to have managed her tyrannical husband with great skill, nursed him in the long and painful illness which preceded his death, took care of his three children, and altogether pleased his fickle temper. He died January 28th, 1547.

Catherine Howard. 1540-1542.

Catherine Parr. 1542.

This reign is chiefly famous because in it the nation broke away from the Pope and began the Reformation of the Church. But it is also noteworthy for the growth of a despotism which caused mischief later on. Amongst other illustrations of the increase of the royal power, it should be noted that one of the last statutes of this reign enabled the King to make

Death of Henry VIII. 1547.

a law by merely proclaiming his will. Parliament also allowed him to dispose of the succession to the crown at his own pleasure, just as if the kingdom had been his own estate. Wales was made entirely one with England, and Ireland was brought more under the English, being called henceforth the Kingdom instead of the Lordship of Ireland.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What was meant by the "Reformation"? Where did it begin, and when? Who was its first leader? What do we mean by a "Papal Bull"? What effect had this movement on England? How did Henry gain the title of Defender of the Faith?—2. How did Charles V. behave towards Cardinal Wolsey and Henry VIII.?—3. What excuse did Henry make for wishing to divorce his first wife? Why did not the Pope give him at first a direct answer on this question? What advice did Cranmer give the King? With what result? How did Henry act in the end?—4. What causes led to the ruin of Wolsey? Relate his end.—5. How did Henry's treatment of Catherine, and marriage of Anne, affect England? Why was Sir Thomas More condemned to death?—6. By whom was Wolsey succeeded? In what way did Cromwell's views differ from those of his late master? What nickname did he gain?—7. What good purposes had formerly been served by monasteries? How had they become corrupted? Give the dates of the dissolution of the greater and smaller monasteries. What other changes were made at this time?—8. What led to the revolt called the "Pilgrimage of Grace"? Why was it so named?—9. Mention King Henry's other wives, and give the names of his children. What was the fate of Cromwell?—10. What laws passed in this reign show the growth of the royal power?—11. Name the changes made regarding Wales and Ireland.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

EDWARD VI. 1547—1553.

HENRY VIII. made a will a little while before he died, and, so long as his son was too young to reign by himself, he directed that the government of the country should be carried on by his sixteen executors, or men appointed by him to *execute* his will. They were to have the advice of twelve counsellors, and at the head of them all was placed Lord Hertford, the brother of Jane Seymour. Henry had chosen his men carefully, partly among the Reformers, or Protestants as they were now called, because they *protested* against the errors of Rome, and partly among the Catholics. He intended that each party should have a voice in the affairs of the land. He also said in his will, that if his son Edward died without children, his daughter Mary was to succeed him, and after Mary, Elizabeth.

Edward himself was at this time only ten years old, and he was not to come of age until he was eighteen. As he died before he was seventeen, we cannot blame him for all the troubles which came upon England during the few years that he was King.

After Henry's death, Seymour, Earl of Hertford, persuaded the other executors of Henry's will to make him Protector of the kingdom, and he received the title of Duke of Somerset; while the son of Dudley, the money-making lawyer who had done so much mischief in the reign of Henry VII., was created Earl of Warwick. Somerset's brother, Sir Thomas Seymour, was also raised to high honours.

Protector
Somerset.

Somerset began at once to use his new power in helping forward the Reformation. He had made up his mind that England should become a Protestant country, whether the people liked it or not; and of course this could not be brought about suddenly without persecution. Unhappily the people of those days, to whatever party they might happen to belong, thought it was their duty to make others believe the same as they did; and this mistaken idea led to a great deal of misery.

Thomas Cranmer was at this time Archbishop of Canterbury. He had gradually been becoming more and more of a Protestant in heart, and it was his help that the Duke of Somerset sought. Cranmer was a wise and learned man, but timid and weak when thrown into temptation; and he, too, was not slow to persecute others for their religion, though he found persecution very hard to endure when it came to his own turn. Still English people have always felt an affection for the memory of Cranmer, as it is to him chiefly they owe the Book of Common Prayer, which he compiled by translating portions of the old Latin Service Book into English.

Thomas
Cranmer,
Archbishop
of Canter-
bury.
1533—
1556.

Book of
Common
Prayer.
1549.

The Protector ordered that Cranmer's new service book should be read in the churches, and also that the images of saints and angels should be taken away from all places of worship. The order was a signal for great confusion. The most passionate and bigoted people rushed to the churches, broke the statues to atoms, smashed the painted glass, and covered the pictures on the walls with whitewash.

Zeal of the
towns.

But although the Londoners and the men in the larger towns liked these changes, the country folk still looked on them with wonder and horror. They had been used to name their children after their patron saints and offer flowers at their shrines. Now they saw the images of the saints flung to the ground, the crosses at which they

Discontent
of the
country.

had prayed taken away, and all those things they had been taught to regard as good and holy treated as wrong and worthless. No wonder that their discontent increased.

Meanwhile the Protector had to turn his thoughts towards Scotland. The last King, James V., had died in 1542, and left a baby girl called **Mary, Queen of Scots.** Mary, whom the English wanted as a wife for their young King Edward VI.; for 1542—1587. they thought that if the marriage took place England and Scotland would become one kingdom. The Scotch themselves did not like the match, and when Somerset found he could not persuade them to consent to it he determined to try force; and, collecting an army, he began to march towards Scotland.

The Scotch at once rose and met the English at Musselburgh, September 10th, 1547. Here was fought a fierce and savage battle, called the battle of Pinkie Cleugh or Musselburgh. The English won, though in this instance neither the victory nor their behaviour after the battle gained them any credit, but only caused between the two nations a very angry and bitter feeling, which lasted for a long time.

This defeat did not make the Scotch more anxious to marry their little Queen to the English King than they had been before. She was therefore sent over to France for greater safety, and there betrothed to the King's eldest son.

Somerset could not stay long in Scotland after his victory, as very serious matters needed his presence in England. The country people were about to rise, and his own brother, Sir Thomas Seymour, Lord Sudely, High Admiral, was plotting to be made Protector.

Sir Thomas Seymour had married Catherine Parr, Henry's widow, and after her death he tried to persuade the Princess Elizabeth to be his wife. He had lately attempted to collect soldiers to overthrow the power of his brother Somerset.

That Seymour was to blame cannot be doubted,

but his condemnation was pronounced without trial or opportunity to answer for himself. He was destroyed by what was called an act of *attainder*, a term which was too often ^{Attainder of Seymour.} heard in the troublous times of our country. It meant a bill presented to Parliament to *attaint* a man or pronounce him condemned for high treason. As King, Lords, and Commons united could do anything, there was no trial needed. They made the law for the occasion. When the bill was passed it became in fact an Act of Parliament, making it lawful to put a particular man to death. By such an act of attainder Sir Thomas Seymour was beheaded March 20th, 1549.

The execution of Sir Thomas Seymour did not lessen the Protector's difficulties. A spirit of discontent was spreading everywhere, and for ^{Reasons for general discontent.} it there were many causes. In the first place the Government, which was very much in debt, caused bad money to be coined, and this made everything seem dearer. Then the estates which Henry had taken away from the monks had been given to nobles and gentlemen, who had only of late risen to power, and who appear to have been rather hard to the poor.

The lands of the monks had generally been used for growing corn and vegetables; but the new landlords found they could gain more if they used their fields for feeding sheep, the wool of which they sent to Flanders and sold for a good deal of money. As it only takes one man to look after a flock of sheep, while many are needed to reap a field of corn, the new landlords did not need to employ so many labourers as the monks had done, and many persons accordingly found themselves without any work to do.

Then, too, the monks, with all their faults, had been kind masters; they had helped the sick and those unable to work, while they had allowed the poor people to take many pieces of waste land to till for their own use. The new landlords acted very differently: every piece of ground they could get

hold of they enclosed with their own estates, depriving the poor of their only chance of getting a living.

In 1549 disturbances began, both in the western and eastern counties. Many people refused to use

Cranmer's new services. And the Protector, knowing that the poor had many hardships, instead of putting down revolt with a strong

hand, sent men into different parts of the country to find out all the causes which the poor had for complaint, and ordered that the commons and waste grounds should not be taken away from them by the rich.

This encouraged the peasants to continue their resistance, and greatly enraged the gentry against

the Protector. Before long the riots became really serious. In the eastern counties they

were led by a tanner, of the village of Wymondham, near Norwich, called Robert Ket. Ket held his camp at a place called Mousehold Hill, to the north of Norwich; and discontented people, to the number of sixteen thousand, flocked to him from the towns and hamlets round.

In the middle of the common on which they held their meetings stood a large oak tree, which they called the Oak of Reformation. Under its shadow sat Ket, and held every day a court of justice. To him were brought the country gentlemen of the district who were charged with having robbed the poor. If they were found guilty they were made prisoners, though no harm was done them. But if they found any rich man who had got wealth by enclosing a piece of waste land, then would the rioters break down the palings, take away the sheep and cattle, and divide them equally among themselves.

At length, as the Protector seemed so slow of action, the Council took the law into their own hands,

and sent an army to Exeter against the western rebels, who were besieging that town. After having gained a victory over

them at Cliff they relieved Exeter, and put down the rebels with great severity, hanging many of the priests on the towers of their parish churches.

Suppression
of western
rebels.
1549.

A messenger was now sent to Ket, offering him a pardon if he made his men disperse. But when on his refusal the messenger tried to take him prisoner, the whole town of Norwich made ^{The Norwich rebels.} so great an uproar that the officer was **1549.** very glad to escape.

Lord Northampton was next sent to speak to Ket, but he too was forced to fly; and at length the Earl of Warwick had to go thither with a number of soldiers, many of whom were not Englishmen, but Germans hired by the Protector to serve in the war against Scotland.

Warwick with his army marched against Ket's camp on Mousehold Hill, completely defeated him, and killed about four thousand of the rebels. Some of them were hanged on the Oak of Reformation, but Ket himself was executed at Norwich.

These misfortunes gave rise to angry feelings towards the Protector. It was said that he was too strict with the young King, and that he was ambitious of gaining royal power; ^{Fall of Somerset.} while many looked with jealous eyes at **1549.** the grand palace of Somerset House which he was building for himself, and to make room for which he had pulled down a parish church.

The Earl of Warwick noticed and encouraged the growing ill-feeling towards the Protector, opposing him on every occasion. At last a quarrel arose between the Protector and the Council, which ended in the fall of Somerset from power, while Warwick became, in 1549, the leader of the nation.

The people, however, soon found that they had not changed for the better; for Somerset, although he made mistakes, was really anxious for the good of his country, while Warwick ^{Warwick Protector.} cared only for his own selfish schemes. **1549—1553.** Boulogne, which had been won from the French by Henry VIII., was given back to them in 1550; while more and more bad money was coined to pay the debts of the Government. ^{Base coin.} This only made the prices of everything rise,

until it was said that even if a poor man had "three shillings a day for his day's labour he could scarce live on his hire." At last such trouble did this coining of bad money make in the land, that in 1551 the Council saw that some great effort must be made at reform.

But there was too much bad money everywhere for them to be able to call it in, and the only thing which could be done was at once to set the bad coins down at their real value. Thus each shilling was reduced to sixpence, and every one in the country found himself only half as rich as he had been before. Even this did not stop the coining of bad money, and the distress of the poor grew greater and greater.

The Reformation also was carried on in a very wrong spirit. Gardiner, the Bishop of Winchester, and Bonner, Bishop of London, who both remained faithful to the Pope, not only lost their bishoprics, which was perhaps reasonable, but they were imprisoned in the Tower as criminals. Even the Princess Mary was interfered with and told she must give up hearing mass. This she firmly refused to do, and asked her uncle, Charles V., King of Spain, to help her. Had he not had a great deal on his hands just then he would most likely have made war on England.

Somerset, seeing that affairs were going on even worse without him than with him, determined if possible to regain his lost power. His plans were, however, betrayed to Warwick, and he was taken prisoner, tried, and condemned to death. He was beheaded on Tower Hill, January 22nd, 1552.

Warwick, who had lately been made Duke of Northumberland, having got rid of Somerset, managed to gain great influence over Edward, whose health was beginning to fail. Northumberland felt sure that the King could not live long, and laid his plans that he might continue in power after his death. It must be remembered that Henry VIII. had a sister Mary,

Progress of
the Refor-
mation.

Death of
Somerset.
1552.

Lady Jane
Grey.
Born, 1536.
Died, 1554.

who had first married the King of France, and after his death, Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. They had two daughters, Frances and Eleanor. Frances had married the Marquis of Dorset, and her eldest daughter, the Lady Jane Grey, was now chosen by Northumberland as a wife for his son, Guildford Dudley.

The Lady Jane was only seventeen years old, and had been brought up in the Protestant faith. She was very fond of Edward, who also felt a great affection for her. Northumberland took advantage of Edward's feelings, and persuaded him to make a will setting aside his own two sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, who were the true heirs to the throne, and leaving the crown to the Lady Jane Grey. This was quite unlawful, as Edward had no power to alter his father's arrangements without the consent of Parliament. Still he had certain papers or letters patent drawn up and signed by many of the nobles, some of whom felt that they were doing wrong. The Archbishop Cranmer was the last who wrote his name to this false deed, and he did so very reluctantly, giving way at last to the wish of the dying boy, who breathed his last on July 6th, 1553.

Death of
Edward VI.
1553.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What persons were chosen to carry on the government according to the directions given in Henry's will? How were these directions departed from?—2. Whose help did the Duke of Somerset seek when he determined to make England a Protestant country? What was the character of the latter? Why did the English entertain a respect for his memory?—3. How did the people in the towns and country places differ in their feelings about the changes in religion?—4. State the cause and the result of the battle of Finkleigh, and give the date.—5. What serious matter now demanded the presence of Somerset in England? Explain the Act by which the Earl of Seymour was destroyed.—6. Show clearly the various reasons for the discontent among the people at this time. How did the Protector act, and what effect did his conduct have? Give an account of the rising in Kent, and the way in which it was put down.—7. Who encouraged the growing ill-feeling towards the Protector, and with what effect?—8. How were the people affected by the fall of Somerset? What evils arose from the coining of bad money and what was at length done to put a stop to it?—9. Mention some of the acts of persecution towards the Roman Catholics. What was the fate of Somerset?—10. Explain the plan made by the Duke of Northumberland for altering the succession, and show the way in which he carried it out. Who was the last who signed the deed? Give the date of Edward's death.

CHAPTER XXXV.

MARY I. 1553—1557.

THE Duke of Northumberland did not at once tell the people that Edward was dead, as he wanted, before he proclaimed the Lady Jane Grey queen, to get Mary into his own hands. Therefore he sent his soldiers at once to Hunsdon in Hertfordshire, where he believed her to be staying, to bring her to London.

Scheme of
Northum-
berland.

But Mary, quite aware of her danger, had gone to Kenninghall, on the Waveney, a castle near the sea-coast, from which she knew she could easily escape should Northumberland's plot succeed. From thence she removed to Framlingham, and began to gather about her all her Catholic friends, many of whom had fared badly in the last reign.

Mary's fore-
sight.

As yet the Lady Jane had not heard of Edward's death, and when, on the 10th of July, 1553, Northumberland told her of it, and at the same time knelt to her as Queen of England, the girl, both surprised and dismayed, declared "that it could not be; the crown was not for her; she could not bear it; she was not fit for it." Northumberland, however, took care to make her believe that she was really and lawfully Queen of England, and then she seems to have made up her mind calmly to do her best. But the harsh and cruel way in which the old religion had been put down caused nearly all the English people to take the side of Mary, who had, they knew, the best claim to be queen. The eastern counties at once declared themselves ready to fight in her

cause; and when Northumberland marched with his army to oppose them, the Londoners looked sullenly after them, no one saying, "God speed ye." Northumberland's soldiers soon made matters worse for him by refusing altogether to fight against Mary, while the fleet declared her to be queen, and the Council sent to offer her the crown. Triumph of Mary.

Northumberland was much alarmed at the turn affairs had taken, and hoping that if he submitted to the queen he might escape the punishment he feared, he threw up his cap and shouted as his soldiers were doing for Queen Mary. Then he went to the Lady Jane, who was sitting in state in the Tower, and told her of his ill-fortune. She replied by telling him how welcome his words were, and asked if she might go home. But the Tower was a prison as well as a palace, and the Lady Jane was never to leave it until she left it to die.

Meanwhile, on the 19th of July, the lords with the mayor and heralds went to Cheapside, and in the midst of all the people proclaimed Mary to be queen. On hearing this the citizens rejoiced that the affair should be settled without a civil war, and shouted with all their might, "God save the Queen! God save the Queen!" They then rushed to set the bells of St. Paul's and of all the other churches ringing, while *Te Deums* were sung and bonfires were lighted; and the rich men spread tables in the streets covered with choice dishes off which to feast merrily with their friends and relatives. Proclamation of the Queen.

Thus was Mary greeted on her coming to the throne. We shall see how she in her turn, by her severities towards the Protestants, managed to change the feelings of her subjects from love to hatred.

Mary was at this time thirty-six years old, and she had hitherto led a very unhappy life. The ill-treatment and death of her mother, Catherine of Aragon, had given her a great dislike to the Protestant party, and made her bitter and revengeful. She was, besides, sure in her own mind of the truth of the Roman Catholic faith; and as she believed that all who

departed from it would be lost for ever, she thought the best way to win the praise of God was to destroy all Protestants and restore England to the power of the Pope.

After the arrest of the Reformers the mass was again restored, the married clergy also were driven from their churches, and the Roman Catholic bishops who had been put in prison in Edward's reign were set free, and their bishoprics given back to them.

Northumberland was condemned to death, and when the end came, the man who had plotted against the Queen in order, as he said, that the English should be ruled by a Protestant, told the crowd standing round the scaffold that he died believing firmly in the one true Catholic faith, "to which, had he been brought sooner, he would not be in his present calamity." "Woe worth him!" said the Lady Jane Grey, when she heard of his conduct, "he hath brought me and our stock in most miserable calamity by his exceeding ambition. Like as his life was—wicked and full of dissimulation—so was his end thereafter. I pray God I view no friend of mine die so. Should I, who am young and in my few years, forsake my faith for the love of life? May God forbid!"

Northumberland's conduct had its effect on the people, and caused the Roman Catholics to believe that the Protestants would all act in the same cowardly way when death was near, and that it would be very easy to win the land back to its old faith. Partly for the sake of a helper in this work, and partly also because she longed for some one to love, Mary made up her mind to marry Philip of Spain, the son of Charles V.

Her subjects disliked the idea of Mary having a Spaniard for a husband, and wished her to marry Courtenay, Earl of Devon, a great-grandson of Edward IV. Courtenay had done nothing to win Mary's liking; but when the people saw how determined she was to get her

End of
Northum-
berland.
1553.

Mary and
Philip of
Spain.

Unpopu-
larity of the
marriage.

own way they grew very angry and began to rebel against her. The Spaniards, they said, were coming to take England and make it a province of Spain. Rather than such an event should happen, Courtenay and Elizabeth must marry and be King and Queen of England. Different plots were made by the discontented people. In Cornwall and Devonshire there was one rising headed by Sir Peter Carew; and at Leicester, in January, 1554, the Duke of Suffolk made an effort in favour of his daughter, the Lady Jane.

These plots failed, but in another rising in Kent, under Sir Thomas Wyatt, there was much greater danger to Mary. The men of Kent, always brave and fond of fighting, were roused to anger at the thought of the Spanish marriage, and willingly followed Wyatt, who marched to London at the head of fifteen thousand soldiers. The rebels seized the ships as they lay in the Thames, and the army which Norfolk took to fight against them left their leader to follow Wyatt, shouting with all their might, "A Wyatt! a Wyatt! we are all Englishmen." Mary, though in London and in the midst of danger, showed no fear. With a brave air and "her deep man's voice" she rode (February 2nd) boldly to the Guildhall and spoke to the people there, telling them she did not care so much to marry, that she would do so without the consent of Parliament; and begged them "to stand fast against the rebels—your enemies and mine."

This courage saved her. Twenty thousand men enrolled themselves the next day as defenders of their Queen, and when Wyatt and his men tried to enter London by Southwark Bridge they found it had been secured by the citizens. The only way for Wyatt to reach London was to take his men up the river till they got as far as Kingston, and then to bring them all across in boats. This had to be done by night, and the roads being dirty and difficult to travel, it took some time. All the while the Queen's army was gaining strength and preparing for her defence.

At length Wyatt's men, weary and out of order, marched from Kingston down to what we now call Piccadilly, and reached Hyde Park Corner. There they were met by the Royal troops, and many of them scattered. But Wyatt, though despairing of success, still went on past St. James's Palace, past Charing Cross, and up the Strand until, with only twenty-four followers left, he reached Temple Bar. Then he sank down exhausted at the gate, crying out, "I have kept touch." It was closed against him. He was taken prisoner, and the rebellion was at an end.

Archbishop Cranmer was hurried to the Tower, whither he was soon followed by Nicholas Ridley, Bishop of London, and Hugh Latimer, Bishop of Worcester. All three men had been active in promoting reform in the Church, while Latimer, the son of a Leicestershire farmer, was noted for being the most eloquent preacher and one of the bravest men of the time. When quite young he had devoted himself eagerly to the pursuit of the "New Learning," and had become by degrees an earnest Reformer, daring even to oppose King Henry VIII. when he thought he was in error. On other occasions Latimer had been in danger of his life on account of the faith he held. In 1546 he was arrested for heresy and resigned his bishopric, but had become again court preacher during the reign of Edward VI. Latimer might have escaped had he chosen, but preferred to await his trial in England, although he felt that martyrdom was before him. "This place has long groaned for me," he exclaimed as he passed Smithfield, the spot where executions for heresy generally took place.

As yet the Queen had seemed to be of a mild and merciful disposition, but the rising had horrified and angered her, and she was ready to take a terrible revenge on the Protestants.

The first to fall were the Lady Jane Grey and her

Persecution
of Protest-
ants.

Hugh
Latimer.

Born, 1469.
Died, 1555.

Queen
Mary's
vengeance.

young husband, Lord Guildford Dudley. They were both beheaded, February 12th, 1554, on Tower Hill. Before the Lady Jane was put to death Mary did what she could, according to her ideas, to save the soul of her victim. She sent Feckenham, Abbot of Westminster, a Roman Catholic priest, to talk to Lady Jane, and if he could to convert her. But the heroic girl remained firm in her own faith. Her husband was the first of the two led out to die, and his young wife saw him depart. She also saw his dead body brought back in the cart. But nothing moved her to fear. When her turn came she thanked Feckenham for his attentions to her, and walked calmly up the steps of the scaffold. Then telling the people that she had been wrong in accepting the crown, but was really guiltless in intention, she knelt down, laid her head on the block, and died.

Execution of
Lady Jane
Grey.
1554.

The same day many of the rebels were slain; and in order to terrify the Londoners gibbets were erected all over the town, so that everywhere the dead bodies of those who had been hanged were exposed to view. The prisons also were crowded with people, and the Tower was so full that Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer were all placed in one cell. On the 23rd Lady Jane's father, the Duke of Suffolk, was beheaded, and he was followed by other nobles who had helped in the rebellion.

Even the Princess Elizabeth was in great danger, and all means were used to make Wyatt accuse her. She was ordered to come to London, but returned word that she was ill. This Mary believed to be only an excuse, and Elizabeth was sent, much to her own dismay, to the Tower. It is possible that she would not have left this prison alive if her sister could have helped it; but all the young men of the day, and indeed the people generally, were so fond of Elizabeth that the Queen was afraid to do her any harm. Mary was told that no case could be made out against her sister, and

Danger of
the Princess
Elizabeth.

Elizabeth was therefore allowed to leave the Tower and go to Woodstock.

As Wyatt's rebellion had failed, nothing more could be said against Mary's marriage with Philip,

Arrival of
Philip of
Spain.
1554.

and the Queen became more and more anxious to see her husband. But Philip, who had been forced into this marriage quite against his own will, came slowly and unwillingly, knowing all the time that he was not at all popular. Indeed, so much did he dread the English feeling against the match, that he thought it needful to bring his own cook for fear of being poisoned. When at last, in July, 1554, he arrived, he found his bride old, plain, and careworn, and he soon grew very weary of her show of affection for him.

So far Mary had succeeded in gaining her wishes; her country had returned to the Roman Catholic faith,

Cardinal
Pole and
restoration
of Papal
authority.
1554.

and she had gained the husband for whom she longed. She hoped, too, that England would soon be reconciled to the Pope, for Cardinal Pole, an Englishman, a Plantagenet, and a zealous Catholic, was coming from Rome to make the best terms he could for the restoration of the land, which for so long had disobeyed the head of the Church.

Pole was the son of Margaret, the daughter of the Duke of Clarence, Edward IV.'s brother, and had been absent from England at the time when Henry VIII. did away with the rule of the Pope in this country. When that King after this ordered him to return, he refused. On this account he was declared a traitor, and was forbidden ever again to set foot in England. But things having taken another turn, Pole's exile was at last over, and he was coming home; at first, however, only as a messenger, and not with any authority. England was, to all appearances, ready to receive him. Crowds were gathered together at Dover to meet and welcome him; and when he entered Canterbury he found the streets thronged with happy faces, while the people shouted, "God save your Grace!"

At Rochester, however, he received the news that he might act as the "papal legate," or ambassador; that is, he was to act in England in all things as the Pope would were he there himself.

So the Cardinal was rowed up in his barge to the palace at Whitehall, with the silver cross, which showed he was the Pope's legate, gleaming at the bow of his boat. This was on November 24th, and on the 28th Pole made a long speech to both Houses of Parliament, telling them how thankful they ought to be for their faithful Queen and her husband, and saying that he, being there as legate, had the keys of heaven, which he would open to them if they would be reconciled to Rome.

Most of the members of Parliament, being Roman Catholics, were very pleased with Pole's words, and when, two days after, they accepted the Pope's forgiveness from Pole, he absolved them from their errors as they knelt on the floor at Whitehall, while *Te Deums* were joyfully sung in the chapel adjoining.

In January, 1555, the laws for the burning of heretics, which had been done away with in the reign of Edward VI., were re-
Restoration
of the
statutes for
burning
heretics.
1555.
 newed, and Gardiner, Bonner, and other bishops at once set to work to root out what they considered to be wrong opinions.

But though the Parliament were so far ready to give way to Mary, they refused altogether to promise that Philip should have the crown before the Princess Elizabeth if Mary died.
Refusal of
Philip's
succession.
 They also refused to give up the lands which Henry had taken away from the clergy. These estates belonged generally to the nobles, to whom they had been given as presents, and of course they, even though they had turned Roman Catholics again, did not like to make themselves poor. Thus Mary had to content herself with giving back to the Church the lands which belonged to herself, and with refounding whatever abbeys she could.

The first who were tried for heresy and condemned

to be burned, were Rogers, a Canon of St. Paul's, and Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester. Rogers was burned at Smithfield, and Hooper in his own cathedral city, on the 4th of February. Both were offered pardon at the last moment if they would confess themselves to be in the wrong. Both refused, and remained true to their faith to the last.

Rowland Taylor, a clergyman, was burned at his own town of Hadleigh, the streets of which "were beset on both sides with men and women of the town and country, who waited to see him. When they beheld him so led to death, with weeping eyes and lamentable voices they cried, 'Ah, good Lord! there goeth our good shepherd from us!' 'What place is this?' asked Taylor, 'and what meaneth it, that so many people are gathered together?' 'It is Oldham Common,' they replied, 'the place where you must suffer.' 'Thanked be God,' he exclaimed, 'I am even at home;'" and so he alighted from his horse, and with both his hands rent the hood from his head. But when the people saw his reverend and ancient face they burst out weeping, and cried, saying, "God save thee, good Dr. Taylor; Jesus Christ strengthen thee and help thee; the Holy Ghost comfort thee." Then would he have spoken to the people, but his guards would not allow it; and when he had prayed, and kissed the stake, the fire was lighted. He stood still, without crying or moving, until a blow on the head ended his life.

Scenes like these only made the English sympathise with the Protestants and hate their persecutors; and when one after another was sent to the stake, the horror of Mary and of Mary's rule grew more and more intense.

The chief Reformers, Ridley, Bishop of London, Latimer, who had been Bishop of Worcester, and Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, were now to die. To dispose of the first two was not at all difficult, as they had been made bishops since Henry's

The
martyrs,
Rogers and
Hooper.

Rowland
Taylor.

Reaction of
feeling.

quarrel with the Pope. But Cranmer had received his archbishopric before that time, so his case had to be tried in Rome as well as in England.

Latimer and Ridley were burned at Oxford, on October 16th, 1555; they were led from their prisons to suffer. Latimer, who was eighty-six years old, was curiously dressed in a thread-^{Latimer and Ridley.} bare frieze coat, under which he wore a 1555.

long white shroud. His head was covered with a handkerchief, over which was a nightcap. Ridley, on the other hand, was clad in a trim black gown and fur tippet. "Be of good comfort, Master Ridley, and play the man," cried Latimer, as they were chained to the stake; "we shall this day light such a candle in England as, by the grace of God, shall never be put out." Latimer soon died, for the bag of gunpowder which had been tied round his neck exploded and killed him; but Ridley suffered much longer.

It is said that Cranmer, from his prison, saw the death of his friends, and, if this be true, it may be that the great dread of a like fate ^{Cranmer's submission.} made him at last listen to the Roman Catholics, and sign six recantations, or letters of submission, in the hope of saving his life.

But Cranmer had bitterly offended Mary by the way in which he had helped Henry when the King wished to part from her mother, Catherine of Aragon, as well as in the part he had taken in trying to bring Lady Jane Grey to the throne. She had made up her mind, ^{His death and withdrawal of his submission.} therefore, that he should die; but unlike 1556. the other martyrs he was to be allowed to speak, because it was thought he would, at his death, confess himself to be a Roman Catholic.

In this his judges were mistaken; for when, on March 21st, 1556, in St. Mary's Church, Oxford, he stood up to speak to the people, he told them that the thing which troubled his conscience more than anything he had ever done in all his life was the signing of his recantations, and that as in this his

right hand had most offended so it should first be burnt. "As for the Pope," he exclaimed, "I utterly refuse him, as Christ's enemy and Antichrist, with all his false doctrines." When they heard these words they hurried Cranmer quickly to the stake; but he kept his resolve that his right hand should first be burnt. "This is the hand that wrote it," he cried, "therefore it shall first suffer punishment."

There were many other martyrs, some of whom must have suffered even more than these. Men, women, and young lads were flung into prison, beaten, starved, tortured, and sent several at a time to be burned, some at Smithfield, some at Canterbury, and other places, until in three years about three hundred people had been put to death for their religion.

Meanwhile Philip, who did not care at all for Mary, had left England, and the Queen grew more and more unhappy. She longed for children, but none were born to her, and she fancied that God was angry with her because the Church lands had not been restored. So she spent her money on building monasteries and her time in persecuting Protestants, and left her foreign possessions undefended and her ships out of repair. Then she foolishly dragged England into a war with France that she might please her husband. In this war the French, seeing the weakness of the realm, seized the chance to retake, in 1557, the town of Calais, won by Edward III., and believed by every one at that time to be "the brightest jewel of the English crown."

Meanwhile the young men plotted and the old ones waited for a happier day. They had not long to wait. On November 17th, 1558, Mary died, to the great joy of very many of her subjects.

Gloom of
Queen Mary.

Loss of
Calais.
1557.

Death of
Mary.
1558.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Why did not Northumberland tell the people at once of the death of Edward? How had Mary herself foreseen and guarded against this danger? In what manner did the Lady Jane herself receive the news that she was queen? What caused nearly all the people to take the side of Mary?—2. How did Northumberland act in this crisis? Show the manner in which Mary was greeted on coming to the throne. Describe the Queen's character.—3. Mention the changes now made in the religious worship of the country. How did Northumberland act at his execution, and what effect had his cowardly conduct on the opinion of the people?—4. Whom did Mary wish to marry? Why did her subjects dislike the match, and whom would they have preferred? What risings took place in consequence? Give an account of Wyatt's rebellion.—5. What were the results of this

rising? Give an account of the chief persons who now fell victims to Mary's revenge. How were the rebels themselves treated? Give the date of Philip's arrival.—6. From whom was Cardinal Pole descended? Give some account of his former life. With what object did he return to England? How was he received by the people, and what did his coming effect?—7. What laws were now renewed? Why did Mary find a difficulty in restoring the lands that her father had taken from the Roman Catholic clergy?—8. Who was Rowland Taylor, and what was his fate? What effect did the sight of such executions have on the people? Give an account of Latimer, Ridley, and Cranmer. How did Mary spend her last days?—9. What town once conquered by the English was retaken by the French in her reign? Give the date of its recapture, and of Mary's death.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

ELIZABETH. 1558—1603.

VERY wretched indeed was the state of England when Elizabeth came to the throne. The people were in great distress, as Mary had only The state of England. cared for bringing back the Roman Catholic religion, and in so doing had caused the most bitter feelings among her subjects. Many of the Protestants had, in fear of their lives, fled from England to Geneva, and there they had come under the influence of the French reformer, Calvin, who was a much sterner man than our first English Protestants and the Germans who followed Luther. They did not learn during their absence to love their enemies, and when they returned to England after Mary's death they began to fancy that now they could revenge their own troubles and the cruel deaths of their friends. In this way had persecution made both parties equally hate each other.

The money of the country had been much wasted in Edward's days, and Mary had made matters more confused by trying to restore the lands which Henry VIII. had taken from the Church, as well as by her war with France. Besides this, there were some people who said Elizabeth had no right to reign, and that Mary, the Queen of Scotland, had the better title to the throne.

Thus the new Queen, who was only twenty-five years old, began her reign with many difficulties. But Character of Elizabeth. although she was vain and not always careful about truth, Elizabeth had many great gifts, which helped her, on the whole, to

rule well, and to bring England safely through a time of much danger. Above all, she really loved her people, and spent her best strength and time in working for them.

Elizabeth, as soon as she came to the throne, wisely chose as her chief adviser a young man whose name was William Cecil. She had long known his value, and now made him her secretary, saying, "This judgment I have of you, that you will not be corrupted with any manner of gifts, that you will be faithful to the State, and that, without respect to my private will, you will give me that counsel which you think best." Elizabeth was not mistaken in her choice. Cecil served her faithfully and well until his death.

To settle what should be the religion of the land was one of the first and most necessary steps to be taken. Elizabeth was very far from being an earnest Protestant, but she soon saw she must stand by the Reformers. Indeed the persecution of the last reign had done far more to forward the Reformation than any of the changes made before; and many people had grown to believe firmly in the new faith by seeing how bravely the martyrs suffered in its cause.

Therefore, when Parliament met in 1559, several laws were made in favour of the Protestant religion. In the first place, the monasteries which had been built in Mary's reign were again pulled down, the laws for the burning of heretics were done away with, and things restored as they had been in King Edward's time, while two Acts were passed called the "Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity."

William
Cecil (Lord
Burghley).

Protestant-
ism restored.

Acts of
Supremacy
and
Uniformity.
1559.

When Henry VIII. quarrelled with the Pope, he made himself Head of the Church of England, and this title his son held after him. But as Mary thought it wicked to call any one Head of the Church except the Pope, she never herself took the title, and Henry's Act was repealed in her reign. Elizabeth, wishing to regain this lost power, revived

the law of her father; but, to avoid unnecessarily offending the Roman Catholics, she called herself, not Head, but "Supreme Governor of the Church and State in England." By this Act the Queen gained the right of choosing her bishops. By it also every one who held any place under her Government was obliged to take an oath, in which he declared the Queen to be the only supreme governor of the realm, and that no other prince had any power over the land.

This was a great blow at the power of the Pope, as the Roman Catholics believed that he had a spiritual right over every one in every country, and could even depose a prince for offences against religion. The Act of Uniformity bore still more hardly on the Papists, and was besides very grievous to others in the land; for by it the people were forbidden to worship God in any other way than that set down by the Prayer Book of the Church of England. Any minister who used any other service had, for his first offence, to lose his goods; for his second, to be put into prison for a whole year; and for his third, to be imprisoned for life. Everybody, also, who chose to stay away from church on Sundays or holidays was fined one shilling each time. The clergy were ordered to sign a paper which said that the Prayer Book was "in accordance with the Word of God." This only one hundred and twenty-nine refused to do, and they were deprived of their churches.

The Prayer Book of Elizabeth, although slightly altered in some respects, was in most points the same as that which Cranmer had prepared in the reign of Edward VI. The Communion Service was a little altered, a few prayers were added, and, in the hopes of gaining the Roman Catholics, some expressions were omitted which were specially distasteful to them. The book now in use by the Church of England is substantially the same.

Cardinal Pole died a few hours after Mary, and in his stead Parker, a Protestant, was, after an interval, made Archbishop of Canterbury, while fifteen

bishops who refused to take the Oath of Supremacy to Elizabeth had their bishoprics taken from them, and were replaced by men earnest in the Reformed faith.

Nevertheless there were many persons who still loved the Roman Catholic religion; and these found it very hard to be debarred from worshipping in their own fashion. And as it was deemed by them a sin not to hear mass, they would often meet together in the dead of night in private houses, or in secret out-of-the-way places, to perform the services of their religion.

Elizabeth, as might have been expected, had many offers of marriage, and her people were very anxious that she should marry, because they wanted her to have children who could succeed her. One of those who proposed to her was her late sister's husband, Philip of Spain. She refused him, as she did all her other offers, and lived and died unmarried. Still she often found her way out of difficulties by making people fancy that some prince or other might have her for a wife if he only tried long enough. The question as to who should reign if Elizabeth died was a constant trouble so long as she lived. When questioned on the subject, she would never give a decided answer, as she thought the person she named would begin at once to plot her death. "I am not so foolish," she once said, "as to hang a winding-sheet before my eyes."

Projects of
marriage for
the Queen.

Question of
the suc-
cession.

But the person who, from the beginning of Elizabeth's reign, gave her the most trouble was Mary Stuart, the young Queen of Scotland.

Mary, Queen
of Scots.

The Reformation, when it spread to Scotland, brought there, as elsewhere, much discord among the people. When men's minds first began to be moved on the subject, George Wishart, a Protestant preacher, had been burned to death, in 1546, by order of Cardinal Beaton, who had been present at the execution, seated on a fine

The Scottish
Reformation.

cushioned seat. The sight had so enraged the Protestants that they broke into the castle of St. Andrew's, and held it for a year and two months against the troops sent by the Government to oppose them. As Mary at this time was only five years old, her mother, Mary of Guise, a Frenchwoman, took her place as Regent of Scotland. But as she helped the Roman Catholics by bringing French troops to fight against the Protestants, and also gave many places of honour to Frenchmen, the Scots grew very jealous of her power.

In 1557 the leaders of the Protestant party met, and signed a bond which they called the "First Covenant," asking for the English Prayer Book to be used in Scotland. The men who drew up the bond were called the Lords of the Congregation, and they soon became a strong body. But the form which the Reformation was to take in Scotland was settled by John Knox, the most famous of the Scottish Reformers.

John Knox had been a friend of George Wishart, and one of the number who held St. Andrew's against the besiegers. After it was taken he was sent to work as a slave in the French galleys. Galley slaves in those days were very badly treated, and Knox was a prisoner for nineteen months. At length he escaped, and for some time led a wandering life, first in England and then in Geneva. It was in the latter place that he met Calvin and learnt his views. These, as we have mentioned, were different from those first taught by Luther and the English Reformers, though both were equally opposed to Rome. The opinions of Calvin, however, found the greatest favour in Scotland, and it is owing to the influence of Knox that the English and Scotch Churches became so unlike each other.

Soon after Elizabeth ascended the throne John Knox returned to Scotland, and stirred up the Scots to fresh efforts for freedom. In Perth he preached such a fierce sermon, and the townsmen were moved to such excitement, that they smashed the images in

all the churches, and stripped the buildings bare of ornament. A civil war might have broken out if Sir James Stuart, the Queen's half-brother, who was a Protestant, had not helped to put down the riot. He then persuaded Mary of Guise to promise to send no more French soldiers to the city.

She, indeed, kept her word, but instead paid Scotsmen to act for her, and so much offended the Protestants that they took up arms, drove all the French out of Fifeshire, and seized Edinburgh. Then, in 1559, they asked Elizabeth for aid. Elizabeth did not much relish helping rebels against their queen; but she at last made a treaty with the Scotch lords, promising to assist them against the French if they would not refuse to receive Mary Stuart as their queen.

In June, 1560, the Regent, Mary of Guise, died, and troubles in France called many of the French troops home. Her death was followed by that of Mary Stuart's young husband, Francis II. This last event made it necessary for Mary to return to her native land. Return of
Mary to
Scotland.
1561.

Mary Stuart was clever, brave, and beautiful, and made nearly every one around her love her; but she was not well fitted to rule Scotland. She had been badly trained in the French court, and was moreover a devoted Roman Catholic.

This was very unfortunate, for John Knox and his followers were rapidly going on with the Reformation. In August, 1560, a Protestant confession of faith was drawn up, the Pope's power in Scotland done away with, and it was ordered that those who heard mass should be severely punished.

Although the Scotch were very happy to receive their young Queen, who arrived in August, 1561, she soon found the land she had to govern very much less to her taste than the one she had left. For even the highest Scotch nobles of those days seemed rough and rude when compared with the graceful persons she had met at the French court. For a time, however, her half-brother James restrained her from

offending her Protestant subjects, although she had no sympathy with them.

But in 1565 Mary married her cousin Henry, Lord Darnley, the grandson of Margaret, Henry VII.'s daughter by a second marriage. She thought that this would give her an even stronger claim to the throne of England.

Mary and
Darnley.
1565.

Darnley, however, proved to have no attractive qualities, and Mary soon began thoroughly to dislike her husband. Her dislike was increased by his joining with some other nobles in the murder of her favourite Italian secretary, David Rizzio.

About this time a certain man, James Hepburn, the Earl of Bothwell, obtained a very bad influence over Mary; and in 1567 Darnley came by his death in a very strange way. On June 19th, 1566, a boy had been born to

Death of
Darnley.
1567.

Mary. He was named James, and Elizabeth herself stood godmother. The next January Mary's husband fell sick. Mary appeared to be very anxious about him, and had him taken to Edinburgh and lodged, not in Holyrood Palace, but in a lonely house at Kirk-o'-field, near the city wall.

On February 10th, while Mary was dancing at a ball in Holyrood, the sound of an explosion was heard, and when some terrified people rushed out into the night to see what was the matter, they found the house at Kirk-o'-field blown up by gunpowder, while the dead bodies of Darnley and his page were discovered in an orchard close by.

Every one believed that Bothwell had done this deed; but in spite of the suspicion, Mary not only married him, but raised him to great power. In this way she lost the hearts of her subjects, and the nobles who were jealous of his influence over the Queen determined to attack Bothwell. Knowing this, Mary and her husband went to Borthwick Castle, and from thence Bothwell escaped to Dunbar, Mary following him in the dress of a page. At Dunbar she collected some soldiers, and rode out with Both-

Marriage of
Mary and
Bothwell.
1567.

well to meet the Lords at Carberry Hill, June 15th, 1567. But they found their men so half-hearted in their cause that they knew it would be useless to fight. Bothwell escaped, and Mary gave herself up as a prisoner. She was taken to Edinburgh, where she remained for several months, until removed to Lochleven Castle. From thence she contrived to escape, and after losing a battle took refuge in England, where she threw herself on Elizabeth for protection in 1568.

Carberry Hill.

1567.

Mary escapes to England.

1568.

Elizabeth was by no means pleased at having the Queen of Scots for a guest. She was afraid to let her pass over to France, and did not like to restore her to her throne. She determined, therefore, to keep her as a state prisoner, although the people feared that they "should have enough to do with her."

It must here be borne in mind that Mary's claim to the throne of England was not an unreasonable one; and therein lay the danger to Elizabeth. Being descended from Margaret, Henry VIII.'s eldest sister, Mary was in any case Elizabeth's heir; and, as Elizabeth was the child of Anne Boleyn, whom Henry had married before the death of his first wife, Catherine of Aragon, all Roman Catholics considered that she had no right to reign. But the English Queen had a stronger title to the crown than that of descent, for Parliament had granted to her father power to settle the succession, and according to this settlement it had been arranged that she should reign before his sister's heirs.

Mary's claim to the English succession.

The fears which had been entertained concerning Mary Stuart proved not to be without foundation, for from the time of her arrival in England all the discontented Papists in the country began to form plots on her account. Her fair face and graceful manners made her an object of great interest, and men forgot her foolish actions in pity for her sorrows.

Thus, in 1569, a rebellion broke out, headed by the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland.

Rising in the North. The rebels asked for the old faith to be restored, and entering Durham Cathedral 1569. they tore the Bible to pieces, and had mass said in the presence of all the people. But this rising spread no further than the northern counties, for the people were in general loyal to Queen Elizabeth. The revolt was promptly put down, Northumberland was executed, Westmoreland fled to the Netherlands, and their followers were treated so sternly that the Earl of Sussex, who was sent by Elizabeth to crush the revolt, declared he had been sent "only to direct hanging matters."

And now the Pope made up his mind to stir up the Roman Catholics to act against Elizabeth, and put

Papal Bull against Elizabeth. forth a Bull in which he absolved all her subjects from obeying her. In May, 1570, this Bull was affixed on the door of the Bishop of London's palace by a man named Felton, who suffered death in consequence. Through this declaration of the Pope against Elizabeth, her Roman Catholic subjects felt it against

Its consequences. their consciences to comply even as much as they had done with the Reformed Church, while the Protestants, on their part, acted more and more severely towards them. In 1571 Parliament passed a law in which it was declared high treason to bring papal Bulls into the country, or to call the Queen a heretic.

Between their fear of the Pope and of the Queen the Roman Catholics were driven to underhand dealings; and a number of priests who came into the country about this time gave them a great deal of help. These priests belonged to an order called the Society of Jesus, which had been begun in 1540 by *Ignatius Loyola*, a Spaniard. They were brave men who had devoted themselves to the service of the Pope, and would endure any kind of torture, or even death, for the sake of their religion. For all this these priests were regarded as very dangerous men,

for they were believed to wander about the country in various disguises, holding secret services and stirring up the people to plot and rebel against the Queen.

Cecil, however, had his spies constantly at work among them, and many of them were imprisoned; and, though it was against the law of the land, were tortured in order to gain from them their secrets, and afterwards they were put to death. Cruel measures of repression.

Meanwhile another plan was formed to marry Mary to the Duke of Norfolk, and call in the aid of Spain to restore the Roman Catholic faith and drive Elizabeth from the throne. This also was discovered, and the Duke suffered death in 1572.

At last, after the Queen of Scots had been a prisoner for nineteen years, it was found that Anthony Babington and some other Roman Catholics were about to make an attempt to murder Elizabeth and set Mary free. It was said Execution of Mary. 1587. also that Mary was in league with them. She was, therefore, in 1586, tried, found guilty, and condemned to die. This was a great stretch of power, for the Queen of Scots was no subject of Elizabeth, and no English court had any authority to condemn her. But Mary Stuart had been so long a trouble to the English people that great joy was felt everywhere when it was known that she was to be executed. The Londoners lighted bonfires and set the church bells ringing in honour of the event. Elizabeth, however, though she had no love for Mary, acted against her conscience in putting her to death, and could scarcely be brought to give her consent. The unhappy woman was executed February 8th, 1587, at Fotheringay, her last words being that she "died a good Catholic."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Describe the state of England on the accession of Elizabeth. What was the character of the new Queen, and whom did she choose as her chief adviser?—2. What was the "Act of Uniformity," also the "Act

of Supremacy"?—3. In what respect did the Prayer Book of Elizabeth differ from that of Edward VI.? Who was made Archbishop of Canterbury? How were the bishops treated who refused to take the oath of supremacy?—4. What Prince made Elizabeth an offer of marriage, and why did she always refuse to settle the question of the succession?—5. Mention some of the chief events connected with the Reformation in Scotland and the part taken in it by John Knox.—6. What event made it necessary for Mary Stuart to leave France? Why was she not well fitted to rule Scotland? Give the date of her return to her native land.—7. Whom did Mary marry? What event increased her dislike to her husband? How did he come by his death? Who was believed by all to have done this deed? By what action did Mary lose the hearts of her subjects?—8. Give an account of the events which led to her taking refuge in England. Explain Mary's claim to the English throne. How did events prove that the fears of the English regarding the presence of Mary in England were not without foundation?—9. How did the Pope stir up Elizabeth's Roman Catholic subjects to act against her? To what were the Roman Catholics driven in consequence? Who were the Jesuits, and why were they considered to be very dangerous men? What cruel measures of repression were taken against them?—10. What plot was formed in 1572? and mention the conspiracy which led to the trial and execution of Mary. Why was it a great stretch of power in Elizabeth to condemn her? Give the date and name the place of her death.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

ELIZABETH (*continued*). 1558—1603.

MARY STUART had not been Elizabeth's only trouble during the years of which we have been speaking. All over Europe fierce wars had been going on between the Roman Catholics and Protestants, and the latter were always asking her for aid. But Elizabeth knew how poor her nation was, and how unfit as yet for any great enterprise. So she schemed and plotted, and made pretences which few people believed; but when asked to send soldiers, now to France, now to Holland, she would reply to her Council, striking with her fist on the table, "No war, my lords, no war!" She was very saving also in her own expenses, and never spent much money except on dresses, of which she is said to have had three thousand.

State of
Europe.
Wars of
religion.

This economy did great good, for as she did not need to tax her people heavily, they were able to grow rich and prosperous again. For many years England had done more business with Flanders than with any other country; for to the Flemish market English craftsmen had long been accustomed to send their woven cloth; and the merchants who bought it there sold it again to the other nations of Europe. At that time a company of merchants called the Merchant Adventurers had arisen, who made it their business to carry English cloth across to the Netherlands twice every year.

Trade of
England.

Merchant
adven-
turers.

In 1553 these merchants fitted out three ships, and

tried to find out the way to India by a northern route. Two of their vessels were lost in the ice, but the other, which was commanded by Sir Richard Chancellor, sailed round the North Cape, where Englishmen had never been before, and, going still eastward, made its way into what was to them an unknown gulf, but which is now called the White Sea. At last Sir Richard dropped anchor at the town of Archangel.

The Czar of Muscovy, or, as we say, Russia, saw at once what a great benefit it would be to his people to have dealings with these English merchants; and this adventure of Sir Richard Chancellor proved to be the beginning of trade with Russia.

A proof of the increase of English trade was shown in 1560 in the building of the Royal Exchange by

Sir Thomas Gresham and the Royal Exchange. 1560. Sir Thomas was a rich merchant who had lived for a long time in Flanders. Having seen the grandeur of the rich traders in that country, and the comfortable way they had of doing

business, he contrasted it with that of the citizens of London, who were obliged to stand in all weathers on a narrow crowded pavement. Therefore Sir Thomas built a large brick building, with an arched roof resting on five marble pillars. Here the merchants might walk, protected both from rain and snow, while around it were shops for selling and underneath it vaults for storing goods. This Exchange was visited by Elizabeth, who was so much pleased with it that she ordered it to be called the Royal Exchange.

But in other things besides trade a new spirit was springing up. The farmers no longer cared to live in rough mud huts, but built themselves strong houses of brick and stone. Instead of the wooden platters on which they had been wont to eat their food, pewter dishes came into use, and some even had silver plate. Carpets, too, instead of rushes, were often laid down on the floors, and the windows began to be made of glass instead of wickerwork woven lattice-wise.

Change in manners and modes o. life.

The nobles, who were beginning to find their lives more secure than in former times, no longer cared to live in strong castles with massivestone walls, but built pleasant brick mansions, surrounded by pretty gardens with long winding paths, avenues of trimly-cut trees, and fountains of water sparkling in the sun. Inside, the rooms were hung with tapestry worked in many colours, which told in pictures stories of olden times, of the Greeks and Romans, and of the heathen gods and goddesses. Instead of lying on straw pallets, with logs for bolsters, the well-to-do often had soft feather beds and pillows. The gentlemen were very fond of meat, and fish was not so much eaten as in the Roman Catholic days when flesh had been forbidden on Wednesdays and Fridays. The dress of the times was very grand indeed, as in this the Queen, who was extremely vain, set the example. The gentlemen's clothes were quite as gay as those of the ladies, often made of the richest velvet, and trimmed with gold and silver. Large ruffs were worn round the neck, made stiff with starch and edged with costly ornaments.

The people, too, had grown fond of pleasure. They loved dancing and rough sports such as bear-baiting; while the young men of London often made their way to Finsbury Fields, close to where Moorgate Street Station now stands, and there exercised themselves in archery. In the evening the people went to the theatre, an amusement ~~The theatre.~~ which first came into fashion in this reign.

There had been acting before the Reformation; but it had been conducted by the clergy, and all the plays, which were called "Mysteries," or "Miracle Plays," were taken from the stories in the Bible. Now that these had ceased something was wanted to fill their place, and in 1576 the servants of the Earl of Leicester set up the first theatre at Blackfriars. Their example was soon followed, and before the end of Elizabeth's reign eighteen theatres had sprung up in London alone.

The first theatres were very rough places. The

lookers-on sat in the open air, and no women were allowed to act; their parts were always taken by boys, dressed in girls' clothes. The play-writers were often men who had lived wild lives, and, therefore, though their writings are very clever and witty, many of them cannot now be read with unmixed pleasure. One of these writers, however, stands out beyond all others, and is always thought to be our greatest English poet. This was William Shakespeare.

Another great English poet who lived in Queen Elizabeth's time was Edmund Spenser. He was born in London in 1552, and wrote a lovely poem called the "Faerie Queen," in which he carries one away to a wonderful fairyland, and tells again the old stories of King Arthur and his knights, blending them, however, with real people and actual events. Sir Philip Sidney, a noble knight, also wrote a tale called the "Arcadia," as well as other things; but unhappily he was killed in 1586, whilst still young, fighting at Zutphen against the King of Spain. It is said that, when lying wounded on the battle-field, he asked for some water. When it was brought to him he saw a dying soldier looking at the bottle with longing eyes. Instead of drinking it himself he at once handed it to the soldier, saying, "Thy necessity is greater than mine." Then there was Hooker, who wrote in defence of the Church of England; and Lord Bacon, who first taught men how to look at facts in a scientific, that is to say common sense, way; and many others, for Elizabeth's reign was the grandest time for writers which England had as yet known.

An improvement was also taking place in the state of the poor. The laws had for long years weighed on them very heavily. Beggars and idle people were flogged, imprisoned, and sometimes put to death. But as men were often thrown out of work for what really was no fault of their own, these severe punishments only made the poor rebellious and discontented. It was

The Poor
Law.
1562.

now seen that something ought to be done to mend matters; and in 1562 a law was passed which ordered that every parish should give work to all strong enough to do it, and should provide for the sick and those unable to keep themselves. As the free gifts of the richer people of the parish were not found enough to carry out this law, the justices were allowed to tax all according to their means.

In 1577 it was determined that houses of correction should be established, in which those who did not choose to provide for themselves should be punished and obliged to work. In 1601, ^{Houses of Correction.} however, the taxes for the building of ^{1577.} workhouses were taken out of the hands of the justices, and given to the churchwardens or overseers of the parish. This "Poor Law" of Elizabeth was not altered until 1832, and was the beginning of our system of sending to the workhouse poor people who cannot keep themselves.

With the revival of trade, of social comforts, and of books, there had also arisen a bold race of men, fond of war and adventure, who loved to sail on long voyages and to find out strange countries. Indeed they fancied that they ^{Adventurous sailors.} would some day discover a land of which they dreamed, filled with costly treasure, with houses and streets built of pure gold, the land of El Dorado. Of course this was never done; but to the men of those days almost anything seemed possible, and in looking for El Dorado they did many deeds which made the name of England famous.

Sir Francis Drake was the first man who sailed all round the world, and he came home laden with rich spoils which he had won from Spain, having destroyed and plundered the rich ^{Sir Francis Drake.} Spanish cities of San Domingo and Carthagena. Davis and Frobisher, in their effort to find a passage to Asia round the northern coast of America, discovered the straits ^{Davis and Frobisher.} which bear their names. Sir Walter Raleigh made a voyage to America, and there vainly

tried to plant a colony, which the Queen called Virginia. By him it is said that tobacco was first brought to England and potatoes to Ireland.

Another bold sailor was John Hawkins; unhappily it is to him we owe the beginning of the slave trade, the disgrace of England for many years. But so little harm was then thought of buying and selling men and women, that Elizabeth gave Hawkins a blackamoor on his crest in memory of this, and made some money for herself out of his transactions.

It was against Spain especially that these bold seamen directed their efforts; for Spain was not only their chief rival in the New World, but the great upholder of the power of the Pope. Not being able to do battle with her nationally, on account of the Queen's dislike to war, they took individually every opportunity they could of fighting the Spaniards on the seas, and to this Elizabeth made no objection.

Thus an angry feeling grew up between Spain and England; and Philip, who had long been wanting to make war on Elizabeth, found a plea for doing so on the death of Mary Stuart. This queen had left to Philip her right to the throne of England; and, believing that if he landed in England all the Roman Catholics would rise to welcome him, he fitted out, in 1587, a very large fleet of ships, called in Spanish the "Armada," with which to invade and conquer this land.

Drake, who had just returned from a voyage to the West Indies, at once put to sea again, and in April "sing'd the Spanish King's beard," as he expressed it, by destroying the ships in the harbours of Cadiz and Corunna. Some months later, on July 31st, 1588, men saw the sails of the Spanish Armada from Lizard Point. The Queen, who had all along been hoping that peace might be made, had not properly prepared for the Spaniards; but

Sir John
Hawkins.
Spain and
England.
The Spanish
Armada.
1587—
1588.

she, together with all the people of the land, saw now the great need there was to act.

An army was mustered at Tilbury, the command of which was given to the Earl of Leicester; and the Queen herself went among the soldiers, and, when fears were expressed for her safety, spoke to them in these words: "Let tyrants fear. I have always so behaved myself that, under God, I have placed my chiefest strength and safeguard in the loyal hearts and goodwill of my subjects, and therefore I am come amongst you, as you see, resolved in the midst and heat of battle to live or die amongst you all. I know that I have the body of but a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and of a king of England too."

Besides this army at Tilbury, a fleet of English ships was quickly gathered together; and though there were but eighty of them, while the Spaniards had one hundred and thirty, they were twice as swift in sailing, and were manned by three thousand of the boldest English sailors, commanded by such men as Howard of Effingham, Hawkins, Drake, and Frobisher. In this great time of danger Roman Catholic and Protestant were alike determined to do their best, and fight against their common foes.

Happily the little English ships had the wind in their favour, and so were able to sink many of the large unwieldy Spanish vessels. Then, keeping steadily behind them, they chased them from the English coast as far as Calais. Further than this Drake did not mean them to go. So at night he set light to eight fire-ships, and sent them in among the Spanish fleet. The terrified sailors at once cut their cables, and all became confusion. Some of the Spanish ships were burnt, and some were driven by the strength of the wind towards the North of England.

The English chased them for some distance, and at Gravelines did them yet more injury. The Spanish fleet grew more and more helpless as the gale increased. It was indeed to the wind that the

English in the end owed their victory, for in the fury of the storm the destruction of the Armada was completed. Many of the ships were driven as far as Norway, while some were wrecked on the coasts of Scotland and Ireland. Only fifty-three ships found their way back to Spain.

When the news was brought to Philip he exclaimed, "I sent it against man, not against the billows!" But by the English the victory was celebrated with great joy, the Queen riding to church on the following Sunday in a splendid chariot, while the streets were hung with blue cloth in honour of the naval victory.

The Reformation and the disputes which followed it brought about fresh trouble with Ireland, always Ireland. a great difficulty to the English Government. There, as in England, was established a Protestant Church, which, however, few of the Irish attended, the Roman Catholic worship being, although forbidden, still carried on.

In Ireland there was at that time very little religious persecution; still the Protestant Church was an object of dislike to the people, who were constantly rebelling against the English rule, and seeking in their rebellion the aid of the Pope and the King of Spain.

The first revolt of Elizabeth's reign broke out among the native Irish of Ulster in 1565, and was headed by Shan O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone.

Irish Rebellion. Against him Elizabeth raised some of the
1565. smaller native chiefs, and with their aid Sir Henry Sidney was able to put down the rising. He afterwards brought the country into a state of comparative peace for ten years. In 1579

1579. some Spanish troops invaded Kerry, and another attempt was made at revolt by the Earl of Desmond. This also was suppressed; the Spaniards were completely defeated, and Desmond, after long wanderings, was at length betrayed into the hands of the English and murdered in his bed.

But a still more dangerous rebellion in 1601

brought about the final conquest of Ireland by the English. This revolt was raised by Hugh O'Neil, who had been brought up at the English court, and for his loyal services to the Queen had been rewarded with the Earldom of Tyrone. The English troops which were at first sent against him were defeated, and this encouraged the northern tribes to rise. To put down the disturbance the Queen sent to Ireland the Earl of Essex, a bold but headstrong young man, who proved himself quite unworthy of the favour shown him. 1601.

Instead of making haste to the North of Ireland to break the power of O'Neil, Essex wasted his time in useless parade; and when he at length met the rebellious Earl he made such terms of peace with him that the English Government was greatly displeased, and bestowed on him a sharp reprimand. Angry and alarmed, Essex forgot his duty, left his post, returned to England, and threw himself on his knees before the Queen, beseeching her pardon. Elizabeth, although much distressed, could not be so easily won over. Lord Mountjoy was sent to Ireland in the place of Essex, who was ordered to remain in his own house for a time. Restless in this confinement, Essex made a foolish attempt against the Government, and was beheaded for high treason in February, 1601, the Queen signing, sadly and reluctantly, the warrant for his execution.

Lord Mountjoy was able by degrees to bring Ireland into submission. He defeated in 1602 a combined Spanish and Irish army, and compelled O'Neil to yield to his mercy. Reconquest of Ireland. 1602.

Meanwhile the spirit of liberty was growing in England, and there were some struggles for freedom of speech in Parliament during the reign of Elizabeth. In 1571 Mr. Strickland, a member of the House of Commons, brought forward a Bill for the Reform of the Common Prayer. The Queen at once forbade him to again appear in the House, but gave way to the urgent appeal of the Commons in his favour. Another member, Mr. Privilege of Parliament.

Wentworth, boldly questioned "whether this Council is not a place for every member of the same, freely and without control, by bill or speech, to utter any of the griefs of the Commons?" The same gentleman, when the Queen forbade the question of the succession to be discussed, asked if such an order "was not against the liberties of Parliament." The debate thus aroused was met by a message from the Queen, saying "there must be no further argument," to which the Commons made reply by begging Elizabeth to allow them freedom of speech. Then the Queen, who always saw when it was wise to give way, changed her command into a request, which the Commons, it is said, "received most joyfully, and with most hearty prayer and thanks for the same."

The granting of "monopolies" by Elizabeth was another great cause of discontent among her subjects. **Monopolies.** The Queen had the power, if she chose, to give to any person the right to buy and sell a certain article of food, with which no one else was allowed to interfere. The person to whom this favour was given, as he knew he had all the field to himself, was able to charge very high prices, and this made many things very dear.

In 1601 the Parliament besought Elizabeth to put a stop to this abuse, and she, seeing how angry her subjects were growing about the matter, yielded, and told them there should be no more of the hated monopolies. The House of Commons at once sent their thanks to the Queen, who made answer, in what proved to be her last speech, with these words, "Though you have had, and may have, many princes more mighty and wise sitting in this seat, yet you never had, or shall have, any that will be more careful and loving."

This was very true; but Elizabeth's work in the world was now nearly done. She died the 24th of March, 1603.

The Queen's
last message.

Death of
Elizabeth.
1603.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What was Elizabeth's policy with regard to European affairs? In what way did her economy benefit her subjects?—2. With what country did England do most trade, and why? Who were the merchant adventurers? For what purpose did these merchants fit out their ships in 1553? What result followed from this voyage of adventure?—3. Give the date of the building of the Royal Exchange? By whom was it erected, and for what purpose? How did it get its name?—4. Describe the change in manners and modes of life that took place at this time. When, where, and by whom was the first theatre set up in London? What sort of acting had there been in England before this time? Describe the appearance of the first theatres.—5. Mention some of the great writers who lived in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and state for what kind of works each is celebrated.—6. Explain the first poor law, giving the date of the year in which it was passed. Show why it was necessary. When were Houses of Correction established, and for what purpose?—Into whose hands

were the taxes for this object given in 1601? Up to what year did the poor law last?—7. What class of men extended the power of England at sea about this time? Give some account of the most famous of them. Against what power did they chiefly direct their efforts, and why?—8. What plea did Philip find for making war on Elizabeth? Relate the history of the Spanish Armada, and how it was destroyed.—9. What effect did the Reformation have on Ireland? In what year did the first revolt break out in that country, and by whom was it beaded? Who put down the rising? What further attempts were made at rebellion?—10. Whom did the Queen send against Hugh O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone, and how did he show his incapacity for his work? What was his fate? Who in the end brought Ireland into submission, and by what means?—11. Mention some of the struggles made for freedom of speech in Parliament during the reign of Elizabeth.—12. Explain "monopolies," and show why they were a cause of discontent among Elizabeth's subjects? Relate the words of her last speech.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.
THE HOUSE OF STUART.
JAMES I. 1603—1628.

AT Elizabeth's death every one looked upon James, the son of Mary Stuart, as the nearest heir to the throne, and all were quite willing to accept him as their king. The nature of his claim has already been explained.

Question of
the suc-
cession.

Yet there were others who had also a strong claim, for Parliament had given to Henry VIII. power to say who should succeed him; and in his will, which had been followed hitherto, the crown had been left, in case his own children died without heirs, to the children of his younger sister Mary, Duchess of Suffolk.

Thus the claim of King James depended upon his birth rather than upon any decision of Parliament.

His great-grandmother, Margaret, was, after Henry VIII. and his descendants, the direct heiress of Henry VII. Perhaps this circumstance had its effect in making James insist so much as he did on his personal rights. But, after all, the principal reason lay in his own disposition and that of his race. The first of the line of Stuarts, he began a struggle between King and Parliament which lasted until 1688, when his grandson, the second James, was driven from the throne. The Tudors had all been strong rulers, and had got their own way in most matters; but, with all their faults, they understood how to win the affections of their subjects. The Stuarts were not so fortunate; they never knew how to give way with grace, and

The Stuarts
and Parlia-
ment.
1603—
1688.

they brought in new ideas which the English did not much like. James, among other beliefs, held what is called the Divine Right of Kings; that is, he declared that, as he gained his power from God alone, he was not responsible to Parliament for his actions.

James had been brought up in the Protestant faith, but he did not admire the form of worship introduced into Scotland by Knox. He preferred the English Church, and upheld it on all occasions. One of his favourite sayings was, "No bishop, no king."

James and
the Church.

Of late years there had arisen in England a class of people nicknamed *Puritans* by those who did not agree with them, because they were always saying they wanted a purer worship in the Church. Some of the things to which they objected were only matters of outward form, as, for instance, kneeling at the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, making the sign of the cross at christenings, or wearing wedding-rings. But they had some real grievances. They were often punished most unjustly, and many of their ministers had their churches taken from them. This caused some of them to leave the Church of England altogether and form congregations of their own, that they might worship as they thought right. These congregations were called by their opponents "conventicles."

The
Puritans.

In 1604 James sent for the chief ministers of the Puritans to meet some English bishops at Hampton Court, and discuss these religious troubles before him. This was the "Hampton Court Conference." The Puritans asked James for a correct translation of the Bible and

Hampton
Court
Conference.
1604.

more preaching, and begged that the clergy might not be sent away from their parishes simply for objecting to wear a white surplice or to make the sign of the cross in baptism, or suchlike. With the exception of the translation of the Bible nearly all their requests were scornfully refused, the King declaring that "he would make them conform, or he would harry them out of the land."

In 1608 a number of the Puritan party left England and settled at Leyden, in Holland. Here, although they were left in peace, they did not feel at home, and at last determined to see if they could not make a new England for themselves in America. So in 1620 about a hundred Puritans sailed across the Atlantic in a little ship called the *Mayflower*, and found a home in Massachusetts. Their first settlement was named Plymouth by them, after the last town they had seen in England; and although they met with many and great hardships, they persevered, and in the end founded a flourishing colony. The Americans now look back with pride on the coming of the "Pilgrim Fathers," as they call these early settlers.

The Roman Catholics had expected some kindness from James, and at first received it; but in 1604 the severe laws against them were again put in force, and all Romish priests were ordered to leave England. This treatment led a man, whose name was Robert Catesby, to form the desperate purpose of trying to destroy at one blow the King, Lords, and Commons. His plan, which he told to some friends, was to place gunpowder under the Parliament House, and on the day when the King opened the session to set light to it. In the confusion and dismay which were sure to follow, the Roman Catholics were to rise and regain the land for themselves. Guy Fawkes, a soldier, was sent for to carry the plot into execution; and these men set to work at once by taking an empty house next the Houses of Parliament, and beginning to dig through the wall in order to get to the cellar in which they meant to store their powder.

They had not been at this work long before they found an empty cellar was to let, just in the best spot for their work. They might, perhaps, have succeeded in their plans had not Parliament, which was to have opened in September, been twice put off, and at length fixed for November 5th. Thus the money necessary for carrying out their plot began to run short, and

they were obliged to tell some rich Roman Catholics of their design in order to get aid. This put an end to all. Tresham, one of their confidants, had a friend, Lord Monteagle, among the members of Parliament; and anxious to save his life, and yet give his companions time to escape, he sent a very mysterious letter to Lord Monteagle, saying "The Parliament shall receive a terrible blow, and shall not see from whose hand it comes."

This letter was read before the King and the Council. Meanwhile warning was sent to the plotters to escape, as their plan was found out. Not believing the warning, they took no heed of it; and on the 4th of November Guy Fawkes was caught in the cellar, where he was watching the barrels of powder intended to work such ruin on the next day. Thus the Gunpowder Plot entirely failed; and though Catesby and his friends fled as soon as it was known that Guy Fawkes had been caught, they were soon made prisoners. Some were slain on their way, and others put to death as traitors. When the news of this plot came to the ears of the English nation, a great horror was felt by all; and although only a few persons had been engaged in it, the laws against all Roman Catholics were made more severe than ever.

For a time James appeared willing to support the Protestants both at home and abroad. He married his daughter, the Princess Elizabeth, to Frederic, the Elector Palatine, a Protestant prince; and was treating for a daughter of Henry IV. of France, who was always friendly to the reformed party, as a wife for his eldest son, Henry, when that prince was taken ill and died, November 6th, 1612.

But after the death, in 1612, of his minister, Cecil, the son of Elizabeth's faithful adviser, James altered his course. Careless and extravagant, he was always in want of money; and as the Parliament was very slow in granting him supplies, he determined that his son Charles, who was

Royal
policy.

The Spanish
marriage
proposal.

now Prince of Wales, should marry a Spanish princess who would bring a large sum with her as her wedding portion.

As Spain was still at the head of the Roman Catholic nations in Europe, and all through the last reign had been a most bitter enemy of England, the idea of such a match was intensely disliked by the English people, who looked with great suspicion on the growing friendship of the King for that land.

Amongst those who had shown the greatest hatred for Spain was Sir Walter Raleigh, the great sea captain and favourite of Elizabeth. Early in the reign of James he had been accused of having taken part in a plot against him, and condemned to death. The sentence was not carried out, and Raleigh had instead been shut up for many years as a prisoner in the Tower of London. We cannot wonder that he should have grown very weary of his imprisonment, and been tempted to make an effort to escape. His mind was full of the daring adventures in which he had taken part, and as he had been told by the Indians in his travels of a gold mine on the banks of the Orinoco, he made up his mind to get the King's permission to make a voyage of discovery, and bring back treasure from thence.

It was easy to be seen that this could not be done without danger of provoking the Spaniards. Those who were jealous of Spain did all they could to persuade James to let Raleigh go, for they hoped that the friendship of the two kings might thus be broken. But James, though anxious to gain gold, did not want to break with Spain; so he let Raleigh depart, but at the same time made him promise not to touch the life of any Spaniard.

Raleigh, glad of liberty at any price, went off on his voyage in 1616; but before he reached Guiana he fell sick, and was obliged to send his men up the country without him. Believing that so long as he took home plenty of treasure it would not much

matter in what way it was obtained, he gave his men no distinct orders to avoid fighting the Spaniards; and the result was that, instead of finding the gold-mine, they seized and robbed a Spanish town. Raleigh's son, who had led this enterprise, was killed.

Miserable at his failure Raleigh turned homewards, and on his arrival was at once sent to prison and condemned to die. Instead, however, of sentencing him to death for having broken his word with the King, they carried out his old sentence, and he was executed at Palace Gate in 1618.

Raleigh had been a great favourite with the English people, for they all knew that whatever his faults might be he had always loved his country's welfare above all things; and his death, which was attributed to Spanish influence, was looked upon as a disgrace to the nation.

But James still remained faithful to his friendship with Spain, and supported that nation abroad; while at home he carried on his Government, with the help of favourites, much to the disgust of many of his subjects. His first favourite had been Robert Carr, a good-looking young man, to whom the King took such a fancy that he showed him every mark of affection, and raised him to high honour, making him Earl of Somerset. Somerset and his wife were accused of having been concerned in a murder, and though neither of them suffered death, Somerset's day of favour was over, and the King next fixed his heart on a young man named George Villiers, who was first made Earl and then Duke of Buckingham.

Handsome and well-mannered, Buckingham was soon able to obtain from the King nearly everything he wished. Riches and honours were heaped on him, and his relations were provided for in the most lavish way, while a word from him could gain for any one a high place in the King's favour.

Meanwhile a great struggle had begun on the Con-

tinent between the Roman Catholics and the Protest-
 ants. In 1618 the people of Bohemia had
 risen against their Catholic rulers, and
 chosen for their King Frederic, the Elector
 Palatine, who had married James's daugh-
 ter Elizabeth, and who was a Protestant. The
 Spaniards had retorted by sending an army to invade
 Frederic's own province of the Palatinate;
 and the English were anxious that James
 should help his son-in-law by fighting the
 Spaniards. This led to serious differences
 between the King and his Parliament.

Spain and
the Pala-
tinate.
1618.

Difference of
royal and
popular
feeling
towards
Spain.

In 1621 the two Houses united in petitioning, not
 only that war should be declared, but that the heir to
 the crown should marry a Protestant. James thought
 it great boldness on the part of the Parliament to
 meddle in such matters, and ordered the members,
 in effect, to mind their own business. The
 House of Commons then drew up a protest,
 which, amongst other things, declared
 "that the arduous and urgent affairs concerning the
 King, State, and defence of the realm . . . are proper
 subjects and matter of counsel and debate in Par-
 liament." When the King heard of this he sent for
 the record of the proceedings, and he himself tore
 out the page containing this protest. The wisest
 men of the time thought such a deed a very bad sign
 for coming days. But James, in his foolish self-
 confidence, had no idea of the misery he was pre-
 paring for his successor and for his kingdom.

Irritation of
Parliament.

The time was not yet come in which Parliament
 could decide on the foreign policy of the nation; but
 at least the House of Commons was determined that
 the abuses of the Government at home should be
 attacked.

Buckingham and his friends were said to gain large
 sums of money by monopolies. Places of honour and
 peerages were sold; and Francis Bacon, the
 Lord Chancellor, was accused of having
 taken bribes. Such bribes are presents
 made to a judge before he has given his judgment,

Monopolies
and
corruption.

with the hope that he may thus be tempted to make it a more favourable one. Bacon had often received presents in this way, but they do not seem to have ever affected his sense of justice; and he had sometimes even decided against instead of for the person who made him the present. But to receive a bribe at all is one of the worst things a judge can do; and this Bacon himself soon felt. On his trial he pleaded guilty, and when he heard his sentence, which was that he should be dismissed from his office and imprisoned, he declared it to be a just one.

While Parliament was busied with these abuses, the Spaniards succeeded in taking the Palatinate (1622), much to the anger of Parliament, which told James that he ought to defend the Protestant cause abroad and give up the idea of marrying Charles to a Spanish princess. James was obstinate; and at last, in 1623, Buckingham and Charles proposed to go themselves, fetch home the promised bride, and persuade the Spaniards to give up the Palatinate.

Spanish conquest of the Palatinate. 1622.

The King did not at all like the idea of his dear "Steenie" and "Baby Charles"—for so he called Buckingham and the Prince—going so far from home. But neither of the young men would give up the plan, and he was obliged to let them have their way. They set off on their travels in disguise, wearing false beards, and calling themselves Tom and John Smith. Although they got into some difficulties from their strange runaway appearance, they arrived at Madrid without any serious mishap, and were received very kindly by the King of Spain.

Adventure of Prince Charles and Buckingham. 1623.

Charles soon found, however, that the Princess herself hated the proposed marriage, as she not only disliked the Prince, but was very much distressed at the idea of becoming the wife of a Protestant. The English also were expected to promise freedom to the Catholics, to build a chapel in which the Princess might worship, and allow her to bring up her own children during their early years in her religion. By degrees

Charles was brought to promise all the Spaniards asked, but even then he was not allowed to take the Princess home. At length both Buckingham and the Prince resolved to bring the engagement to an end, and left Spain in a state of great anger.

End of the
Spanish
marriage
scheme.

James did not like his favourite plan thus to fall to the ground, and he knew that there must be war with Spain if the match was broken off. But he was chiefly ruled by Buckingham and Charles, who were both eager for war.

War, James was aware, must cost a large amount of money; and he did not like to engage in it unless he had some great Power to help him. On this account he determined to marry Charles to Henrietta Maria, the sister of the French King. This was not a very easy matter, for Henrietta Maria was also a Roman Catholic, and the King of France was quite as anxious as the King of Spain had been to make James promise freedom to the English Romanists before he gave leave for his sister to marry a Protestant. James, although he had made many promises to the contrary, agreed to all the King required, and having done this he was afraid to assemble Parliament. Yet, without the aid of the Commons, money could not be obtained with which to carry on the war.

Buckingham, rashly fancying himself all powerful, sent out an army to Holland, but the men, badly commanded and miserably fed, were wasted away with sickness and starvation.

While matters were at this pass the King was taken ill, and died March 27th, 1625.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. On what did the claim of James I to the English throne depend, and why? Had any other persons a right to reign? What struggle began with James I.? *Mention some differences in character between the Tudors and Stuart's. Explain what is meant by the 'divine right of kings.'—2. What form of worship was preferred by James? Who were the Puritans, and to what matters of outward*

form did they object? Mention their real grievances.—8. What was the "Hampton Court Conference"? Where did some of the Puritans settle in 1608? What led them to think of making a home so far away? Give the date of the sailing of the *Mayflower*, and name the place at which the first settlement was made.—9. How were the Roman Catholics treated by James? Describe the "Gunpowder Plot." What effect did this have on the minds of the English towards Roman Catholics?—10. Which party did James at first support? To whom did he marry his daughter Elizabeth? After what event did he alter his policy? On whom did he set his heart as a wife for his son Charles? Why was this marriage disliked by the English?—11. What events led to the execution of Sir Walter Raleigh? To what influence was his death attributed?—12. With whose help did James carry on his government at home? Who were Robert Carr and George Villiers?—13. What dispute had arisen between Spain and the Palatinate, and how did it affect this country?—14. What petition did both Houses make to the King in 1621? What unwise course of action did the King take?—15. As the Parliament could not settle the foreign policy of the nation, what did it attack instead? For what crime was Francis Bacon, the Lord Chancellor, tried?—16. What event had occurred in the meantime on the Continent? How did Prince Charles and Buckingham determine to act with regard to the Spanish Princess? Relate their adventures. Why was the match broken off, and to what war did this event lead?—17. To what Princess was Charles now betrothed? Why was James then afraid to assemble Parliament? Give the date of the death of James.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

CHARLES I. 1625—1649.

CHARLES when he first came to the throne bid fair to be better liked than his father. His manners were quiet and distinguished, his face was handsome, and men hoped he might prove a good ruler.

Unhappily he had already done several things which could not fail to bring him into trouble, while Buckingham, to whom he clung with blind devotion, was not the man to lead him in the right way. A

Charles's
first Parlia-
ment.
1625. war had been undertaken without proper support from Parliament, and Charles had made promises which he could not easily keep. The want of money was his first difficulty; for the Commons, having been kept in ignorance of the purposes to which it was to be applied, would not grant more than a small sum. Charles tried in vain to persuade them to give him what he needed, but they distrusted Buckingham, and could not be induced to change. Charles in anger dissolved the Parliament.

He hoped that if his army could win fame by some victory abroad the Commons would grow more liberal. A fleet, therefore, was fitted out

Failure at
Cadiz. and sent to Cadiz, in the hopes that the English might bring home some Spanish treasure. This fleet was manned, not by sailors, but by landsmen, who had been taken, sorely against their will, to fight in the King's service. Neither they nor their officers understood war. The men refused to fight, and the officers made great mis-

takes. The whole affair proved a failure. The English vessels came sadly home again, having lost far more men through hunger and sickness than by battle.

Meanwhile the King's French bride, Henrietta Maria, had come to England. She was only fifteen, but had a strong will of her own. She soon proved to be a source of weakness rather than of strength to her husband. ^{Henrietta Maria.} To keep the promise he had made her brother, of giving freedom to the Roman Catholics, Charles found to be impossible, unless he deeply offended his subjects. He therefore broke his word with France, greatly to his wife's anger, who felt herself to be deceived.

Not faithful by nature, Charles was driven by want of money to fresh deceit. Among other things, he and his father had promised the King of France to aid him against Rochelle, a ^{English fleet used against} stronghold held by Louis's own Protestant ^{Protestants.} subjects who had rebelled against him. This, too, Charles was now afraid to do. He delayed and made excuses, until word came that Louis and the Protestants had made peace with each other. Then Charles, believing himself safe, sent some ships over to France. But the peace proved to be a false one, and Louis used the English ships in war against the Protestants. Of course this action made Charles's subjects still more angry with the King and Buckingham.

If he could have done without money Charles would not have called another Parliament. His late failures, however, had rendered him more needy than ever. But the Commons were ^{Charles's second} also more deeply moved than they had ^{Parliament.} been before. They accused Buckingham ^{1626.} of various crimes, and attempted to have him brought to trial, while Charles, in terror for his friend, again dissolved Parliament, June 15th, 1626.

Then the King determined to get from the nation what he called a "free gift." He bade the people

in the different counties give to him what he needed.

Unlawful
modes of
raising
money,
1626—
1627.

They refused, and he next ordered that a "forced loan" should be collected for him. A "forced loan" meant that money must be lent to the King, whether his subjects were willing or not. Those who said it was unlawful were imprisoned. Poor men who could not pay it were obliged instead to go to the war as soldiers.

In the meantime the King's underhand dealings with France had resulted in a war with that country. Buckingham, who still believed he could succeed in whatever he undertook, tried to land some English troops at the Isle of Rhé, and began to lay siege to the fortress of St. Martin. But the attempt was a failure. Two thousand of his men were slain, while the enemy did not lose a single soldier.

Then the nation's anger against Buckingham rose higher than ever; and when Charles next met Par-

Charles's
third
Parliament.
1628.

liament he found the Commons ready for a struggle. In order to bind the King they drew up a petition, which they called the "Petition of Right," and laid it before

him. In it they prayed that no one should be compelled to give or lend money to the King without the leave of Parliament, and that

"Petition of
Right."

no person should be kept in prison without trial. They urged also that families should not be obliged, against their will, to support soldiers, nor officers order men to be put to death for breaking rules, except in time of war. It will be seen that this petition asked for little beyond what had been solemnly granted by Magna Charta more than four hundred years before. The slight additions about the burden of maintaining soldiers (billeting) and the cruelty of martial law were needed by the changed customs of the times, and were quite in the spirit of the ancient charter. Yet fear for his friend, the Duke of Buckingham, alone forced Charles to sign his approval of this petition. When he had done so, the people showed their joy by the light-

ing of huge bonfires and by the merry pealing of bells.

This was in June, 1628, and Parliament was not to meet again for several months. In the meantime Buckingham went down to Portsmouth to prepare another fleet for the French war.

Among those whose hatred he had won was a certain officer, John Felton. Felton had gone with Buckingham to the Isle of Rhé, and never been paid by him for the work he had done there. As he thought of his own misery and Buckingham's evil deeds, Felton made up his mind to murder the Duke. So he bought a knife and followed Buckingham to Portsmouth. There, on August 23rd, he stabbed him to the heart as he came out of his breakfast-room. Then, without any attempt to flight, he gave himself up as a prisoner, saying simply, "I am the man; here I am."

The King was much distressed when he heard of his friend's death; but so great was the hatred the people bore him, that they forgot the wickedness of the deed, and his murderer was spoken of as a hero. When Felton was led to the Tower an old woman shouted to him as he passed, "God bless thee, little David," as though he had slain a giant.

The death of Buckingham did not put an end to the struggle between the King and Parliament; for besides the question of taxation there was the question of religion. The Puritans had been increasing in numbers as the years rolled on; but at the same time a party very strongly opposed to them in ideas had arisen in the Church. This party did not care for simple services. They liked to hear good music, to see the churches and cathedrals richly decorated, and they took no pleasure in long sermons. Instead of keeping Sunday strictly after they had been to church, they wished to enjoy themselves with feasting and merry-making, or in country places with a dance upon the village green. To this party belonged the King and his friends, while the greater number of men in Parliament

Murder of
Buckingham.
1628.

Questions of
religion.

agreed with the Puritans. The Commons, therefore, believed that if they gave the King all the money he asked for, he would get so much power into his hands that both their liberty and religion would be taken away.

Still it was about taxes that the fatal quarrel arose. It had long been the custom for the Commons, on the accession of a sovereign, to give him for his own use so long as he reigned certain duties called "tonnage" and "poundage," which were levied on various articles of trade. But doubtful of their new King, they had not done so in the case of Charles. The matter was now discussed most hotly in Parliament, and at last the Commons decided that he should not have this money without their consent.

No sooner had they come to this determination than, in 1629, Charles again dissolved Parliament.

Sir John Eliot, one of the noblest men in English history, was then sent to the Tower for riot, together with some other leading members. His companions asked for pardon and regained their freedom, but Eliot would not ask as humbly as the King desired. After three years of captivity he died from the effects of close air and the cold of his prison. When, after his death, his son begged leave to bury his body in Cornwall, Charles replied, "Let Sir John Eliot's body be buried in the place where he died."

For eleven years after this Charles ruled without a Parliament. He was helped by two men — Sir Thomas Wentworth, who became Earl of Strafford, and Laud, who was made Bishop of London in 1628 and Archbishop of Canterbury in 1633. Peace was made with France, and the country became more prosperous, but it was not free.

Government
without a
Parliament.
1629—
1640.

In order to gain money, Charles used every means, just or unjust, which lay within his reach. Many of the old forest laws, which had not for many years been put in force, were hunted up, and people were fined for breaking them. Monopolies, which had been

done away with by acts of Elizabeth and James, were once more revived, and immense sums made thereby.

In the days of Queen Elizabeth, the counties bordering on the coast of England had aided the Queen by giving her ships for the defence of the country against her enemies. Charles had ^{Ship money.} 1637—
taken advantage of the French war to ask 1638.
for the same sort of help, but soon changed his request from ships to money. When he found himself readily obeyed he thought he had got fresh power, and ordered all the counties in England, whether along the coast or not, to give him ship money. The people then grew alarmed, and refused to obey him further. Charles at once asked the judges if he was not making a just demand. The judges replied that the King was in the right, and he had their answer sent to all the counties in England. This was in 1638.

But one man still held out against paying the tax. His name was John Hampden, and ^{John}
he was sent to prison forthwith. ^{Hampden.}

But it was chiefly through the Star Chamber that the King wrung the most money from his people. To this court of law numbers of persons were brought, and compelled to pay the King ^{The Star}
large sums for very little faults. Upon the ^{Chamber.}
Puritans especially did the Star Chamber weigh very heavily. They were fined and often treated with great cruelty. So hard did their lot seem that many left this land and sailed away to America, to join themselves to the little colony there.

Both Laud and Wentworth called the system by which they ruled "thorough." This was their motto, and it expressed their intention not to stop half way, but to put down everything in ^{Wentworth}
Church and State that interfered with the ^{in Ireland.}
power of the King and the bishops. To ^{1631—}
enforce the system on all the nation, Wentworth had ^{1639.}
gone to Ireland in 1631. This land had been for many years in a very wretched state, and the rule of Wentworth did not make matters any better. He

thought that if he encouraged the disputes of the Roman Catholics and Protestants there, he would make the Irish people weaker and more prone to lean on the King for support; and he kept all the people down, with so strong a hand that they did whatever he ordered.

Laud, meanwhile, endeavoured to make the Scots more obedient. As they had there no Prayer Book, he declared that he found among them "no religion whatever." He therefore saw fit to try and introduce his own. On July 23rd, 1637, the new Service Book was first ordered to be used in Edinburgh. No sooner had the clergyman begun to speak than a great riot arose among the people. "Wilt thou say mass i' my lug?" (ear) cried one woman, and dashed her stool at the head of the clergyman.

The Scots were quite determined to have no bishops, and, rather than give way, the whole nation joined together and prepared for war against Charles. They were in fact better prepared for fighting than the King, as their soldiers had been trained for service in the long foreign wars, while the English were unused to warfare, and had little heart to fight against men whose grievances resembled their own.

Charles found himself surrounded by difficulties; and Wentworth, now Lord Strafford, who came over from Ireland at the time, advised the King to call a Parliament once more. But instead of helping the King, the Commons only talked as of old of the country's grievances; and Charles, who was still determined not to yield, again dissolved it, on the 5th of May, 1640, and marched to the North.

However, on August 28th, the Scotch crossed the Tyne, and beat the English army so completely that Charles felt it was useless to go on with the war alone, and had no resource but to call another Parliament, which assembled on November 3rd.

He hoped that it would have begun by giving him

The Service
Book in
Scotland.
1637.

The Short
Parliament.
1640.

The Long
Parliament
1640—
1653.

money, but he was mistaken. "They must now," said Pym, the leading member in the House, "be of another temper; they must not only sweep the House clean below, they must pull down all the cobwebs which hang round the top and corners. To remove all grievances they must pull up the causes of them by the roots."

The "causes of them" the Commons believed to be chiefly Laud and Strafford, and both these men were soon lodged in the Tower. Strafford was first dealt with. Being accused or ^{Attainder of Strafford.} impeached* by the Commons of various misdeeds, he was brought before the Lords for trial as a traitor, and his case was heard in Westminster Hall. It lasted many weeks, and each day the King and Queen came down to listen to all that was said. Everything that Strafford had done was brought up against him, to prove that he had tried to overthrow the liberty of England. But it was a hard matter to show him guilty of high treason, for all his acts had been done in the King's service. At length the Commons dropped the impeachment and brought in a bill of attainder.† This proved a shorter process. He was declared a traitor by both Lords and Commons, and condemned as worthy of death.

Still Strafford could not be executed unless the King consented; and Charles had told him not long before in a letter "that, upon the word of a king, he should not suffer in life, honour, or fortune." But fear of the Commons, whose power was growing greater day by day, overcame Charles's feeling of honour. He gave way, and signed the bill condemning Strafford. "The Earl of Strafford is a happier man than I am," was the King's remark; and the next day he wrote begging that the sentence might not be carried out.

The request was refused, and word was brought to

* An impeachment required a regular trial before the Lords, with hearing of witnesses and defence of the accused. Attainder, as we have already seen, did not.

† See page 227.

Stratford that he must prepare to die. "Put not your trust in princes," he exclaimed, "for in them is no salvation." He was beheaded in May, 1641, and to the end behaved with the greatest calmness, saying, as he was about to lay his head upon the block, "I do as cheerfully put off my doubt at this time as ever I did when I went to bed."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. In what difficulties was Charles entangled when he first came to the throne?—2. How did his marriage with Henrietta Maria prove a source of weakness to him? What circumstances at Rochelle affected events in England, and how?—3. Why was Charles compelled to call a second Parliament, and when? What caused him to dissolve it? Explain the meaning of a "free gift," and a "forced loan."—4. With what country was Charles drawn into war, and with what result? What petition was drawn up by the Commons in Charles's third Parliament? Mention some of its requirements. Had similar requests ever been made before? What alone induced Charles to sign his approval of this petition? Give its date.—5. Describe the death of Buckingham. Who was the assassin, and what led him to commit the crime? How was this deed regarded by the people?—6. What were the main differences of opinion among religious parties at that time? What sides were taken by the King and the Parliament?—7. What was "tonnage" and "poundage," and why were the Commons not as ready

to grant these duties to Charles as to previous monarchs? What result followed from their decision? Describe the behaviour of Charles to Sir John Eliot.—8. How long did Charles reign without a Parliament, and by whom was he helped? With what country was peace made?—9. What means did Charles use for getting money? Give an explanation of "ship money." Who refused to pay the tax, and with what consequences?—10. What name did Laud and Wentworth give to the system by which they ruled, and why? Give an account of Wentworth's rule in Ireland, and Laud's behaviour in Scotland.—11. To what determination did the Scotch now come, and what advice did Strafford give King Charles? What was this Parliament called, and why?—12. What event forced Charles into again calling a Parliament? What did this Parliament at once proceed to do?—13. What did the Commons do in order to condemn Strafford? Give the date of his execution. What is the difference between impeachment and attainder?

CHAPTER XL.

CHARLES I. (*continued*). 1625—1649.

THE Commons now made the King promise that this Parliament should not be dissolved without its own consent; and so many years did it therefore last that it has since been known by the name of the "Long Parliament."

Proceedings of the "Long Parliament."

The Star Chamber was done away, with the levying of ship money was declared unlawful, and it was forbidden to pay tonnage and poundage to the King without leave from Parliament. Several men also who had been thrown into prison and cruelly treated on account of their opinions were now set free. Archbishop Laud remained in the Tower for some time, and was beheaded January 10th, 1645.

The Commons having obtained their own way so far, gave Charles enough money to pay the Scotch army, which had been the means of compelling him to call a Parliament, and it marched home. In August, 1641, Charles himself went to Scotland, intending to pacify the Scotch by granting all their desires, so as to prevent their further interference. But before Scotland was settled all Strafford's work in Ireland was undone. During the King's absence news came that the Irish Roman Catholics had risen against the Protestants, and murdered many of them. The case was certainly made the worst of, but that many people were slain cannot be doubted, and the accounts of the massacre which reached England were very dreadful. Women, it was said, had been stripped of all they

Rebellion in Ireland. 1641.

possessed and driven from their homes to starve, little children killed, and soldiers and unarmed men slain without mercy. For years after people fancied they heard the ghosts of these murdered persons shrieking, "Revenge! revenge! revenge!"

Revenge was, indeed, what the Parliament wanted; but the Commons were afraid to trust Charles with

The Grand
Remon-
strance.
1641.

an army. At length they determined to write down all his faults and mistakes, and let him know what they thought of him. This writing was called the "Grand Remonstrance."

Some of the Commons now thought that they were going too far, and that it was disloyal to show so plainly their want of confidence in the King. So hot grew the debate at last, that we are told how, when some began to protest against the Grand Remonstrance, the members sprang to their feet. "Some waved their hats over their heads, and others took their swords in their scabbards out of their belts, and held them by their pummels in their hands, setting the lower part to the ground." If it had not been for Hampden they would most probably have come to blows.

It was midnight when this scene occurred. The King was still away; but five days afterwards he returned to London. He was forced to

Intended
arrest of the
five mem-
bers.
1642.

listen to the Remonstrance, but refused to allow the Commons the management of the army. He made up his mind to imprison five of the leading members of Parliament, who had been specially bold in their opposition to his will. On January 3rd, 1642, Charles sent down to the House to order their arrest. The Commons refused to give them up, but promised to take the matter into consideration. At the same time they requested, as they had done more than once before, that the House might have an armed guard to protect it. The King returned word that they should have his answer on the next day. On the morrow he took with him a large number of

attendants, and proceeded to the House. News was brought of the King's approach, and thus warned the five members at once made their escape, while the rest remained to see the King.

At last a loud knock was heard at the door, and the footsteps of soldiers without. Charles alone entered with his nephew. He looked round, but failed to see his enemies. He called. No one answered. "The birds, then, are flown," he exclaimed; and having ordered that the five members were to be duly sent him, or "he must take his own course," he went to the door, pulling his hat over his eyes, and followed by cries of "Privilege! privilege!"

The five members had in the meantime gone to the City, whither they were, in a few days, followed by the rest of the Parliament, which sat every day at Guildhall instead of Westminster. All London turned out to protect them, while crowds followed Charles, still shouting, "Privilege! privilege!"

Removal of
Parliament
to the City.
1642.

At last, January 10th, the King left Whitehall. He now began to think that there was no way out of the quarrel between himself and his Parliament but open war. Accordingly, he set up his standard at Nottingham on the 22nd of August.

Civil War.
1642.

It was about this time that the names Cavalier and Roundhead first arose. The Cavaliers were those who took the side of the King, and the Roundheads the Puritan party, which fought for the Parliament. The Earl of Essex was made commander-in-chief of the Parliamentary army; but he did not prove a very good general, and at first it seemed as if Charles, with the aid of his nephew, Prince Rupert, would most certainly end by winning the victory.

In the beginning of the Long Parliament a certain young gentleman had noticed as he came into the House of Commons one of the members making a speech. This member was, he says, "very ordinarily apparelled, for he wore a plain cloth suit, which seemed to

Oliver
Cromwell.
Born 1599.
Died 1658.

have been made by an ill country tailor: his linen was plain and not very clean; his stature was of a good size; his sword stuck close to his side; his countenance swoln and reddish, and his eloquence full of fervour."

This man was named Oliver Cromwell, and he was at this time member for Cambridge. He was a gentleman well known in his own county of Huntingdon, with a wife and children, and lands of his own; he was then forty-three years of age. A zealous Puritan, he had not as yet come much before the public. Whenever he had done so it was either to speak a word for the poor or to get justice done to the oppressed. At the first beginning of the civil war Cromwell took the side of the Parliament, and made up his mind to serve as a captain in the army.

He soon saw what was the cause of the early defeats of the Parliament men, and told John Hampden that "the base and mean fellows they employed would never be able to encounter gentlemen that had honour and courage and resolution; and that to fight men of honour they must have men of religion."

Hampden deemed the advice good, but did not think it could be followed. Cromwell soon showed the way, by himself putting his words in Cromwell's practice. Gathering round him all the "Ironsides," bravest and most religious men that he could muster, he formed a band of such good soldiers that "truly," as he himself said, they "were never beaten at all." These men gained in time by their strength and valour the name of "Cromwell's Ironsides." "I have a lovely company," he once wrote to a friend; "you would respect them if you knew them. They are honest, sober Christians. They expect to be used as men." No drinking or swearing was allowed among Cromwell's troops, and he sternly punished those who attempted to rob or ill-use the country people.

The first great victory won by them was at Marston

Moor, in Yorkshire, July 2nd, 1644. Prince Rupert, Charles's nephew, now led the King's troops; and though they were very brave and gallant soldiers, they seemed as nothing when they came in contact with the Ironsides of Cromwell. "We never charged," he himself says, "but we routed the enemy. God made them as stubble to our swords. We charged their regiments of foot, and routed all we charged." This battle lasted from seven till ten o'clock at night, and in it were slain 4,150 men. Marston Moor. 1644.

After Marston Moor some persons began to think that they might go too far in making war upon the King. This was not Cromwell's view. He scorned the thought that they should be afraid to conquer, and declared that if they did not go to work with greater energy than they had done as yet, "they would make the kingdom so weary of them that men would hate the name of Parliament."


Near the town of Newbury a battle was fought with Charles in October of this year (1644), the Earl of Manchester being the chief Parliamentary commander, and Cromwell serving under him. Cromwell wanted to follow Charles and defeat him utterly. Manchester made answer that if they did beat the King he would still be a king; and if not, "he might hang them all as traitors." "If I met the King in battle," was Cromwell's reply, "I would fire my pistol at the King as at another." Men with such different ideas could not long work together; and through this quarrel of Manchester and Cromwell it was determined to "new model" the army, and make it a rule that no one in future who served in Parliament should also serve in the army. The "New Model." 1645.

Sir Thomas Fairfax was now made commander-in-chief of the Parliament's army, but Cromwell, though a member, could not be spared. He was still one of the leading officers, and through his means an army was formed after his own heart. It soon showed its mettle by Battle of Naseby. 1645.

another victory at Naseby, won June 14th, 1645, in Northamptonshire. The King was so utterly defeated that he was obliged to ride swiftly away for fear of his life. Nor did he ever again lead an army to battle.

But the war still went on, although from this time the victories were always on the side of the Parliament. When, on March 14th, 1647, the last troops who still fought for the King were defeated at Stow, their leader is reported to have said to his conquerors, "Your work is done now, and you may go and play unless you fall out among yourselves."

Falling out among themselves was, in fact, the thing most likely to happen among the Puritans; for there were already among them two great parties—the *Presbyterians*, so called because they would have no bishops, but only presbyters, that is, ministers of congregations; and the *Independents*, who had that name most probably because they were *independent* both of Anglicans and Presbyterians, agreeing with neither. The Presbyterians thought that Christian congregations should be united together under the rule of a General Assembly of presbyters (or ministers) and elders. The Independents, on the other hand, thought each congregation should govern itself entirely. They also declared that the State had no right to enforce any special form of Christian belief; they did not, however, always carry out their ideas in practice. The opinions of the two parties differed also as to the management of the State. The Presbyterians were well content to restore the King if he would promise to govern lawfully, and particularly if he would let them carry out their own ideas about the Church. But the Independents were beginning to think that no faith could be put in any promises of Charles. And in fact the leading men amongst them were coming to the conclusion that it would be better to try a plan of government without any king at all.



Cromwell and his men were all Independents; but the Scotch and many of the Parliament were Presbyterians. It was to the Scotch, therefore, that Charles went, hoping that he might through their aid regain some of his lost power. The Scotch, however, came to the conclusion that the King's word could not be trusted, and gave him up to the English, who sent him, with all due respect, to Holmby House, in Northamptonshire, in January, 1647.

Meanwhile the Presbyterian members of Parliament grew very anxious that Cromwell's army should be broken up, and the men sent home. The army, on the other hand, thought that after all their fighting they ought to have a voice in the arrangement of the kingdom, and were extremely wrathful when they found that Parliament would give them no more freedom of religion than Charles and Laud had done. They determined accordingly to take a very bold step. They sent a Cornet Joyce with some soldiers to Charles, at Holmby House, and carried him off to Newmarket in June, 1647.

While he was here the leaders of the army sent to the King and asked if he would grant to all his subjects—except the Roman Catholics—freedom to worship God in any way that they thought fit. Charles hesitated, refusing to give a direct yes or no. He thought that the quarrel between the Parliament and the army gave him a chance of getting his own way after all. At last he ended all attempts at arrangement by making ready his horse and riding away to Carisbrooke Castle, in the Isle of Wight.

The Scotch did not at all like the idea of the English Independents thus getting all they wanted, and sent secretly to Charles, telling him they would help him with an army if he consented to have the Presbyterian religion established all over his kingdom. This brought on another war between the English and Scotch, a

Charles I. a
prisoner.
1647.

Parliament
and the
army.

The King
carried off to
the army.
1647.

Second Civil
War.
1648.

war in which most of the King's friends joined. Cromwell and his Ironsides again came to the front, and scattered their enemies in a battle near Preston, in August, 1648, which lasted three days, and was the means of bringing to an end the second civil war.

Cromwell had for some time withstood the more violent among the Independents, and had persisted in trying to come to terms with the King. But now both he and his men gave up all hopes of ever coming to an agreement with Charles. They believed that so long as he lived there would be discord in the nation, and determined, as they expressed it, "to call Charles Stuart, that man of blood, to an account for that blood which he had shed and mischief he had done." With this view they moved him again to Hurst Castle, and kept him there as a prisoner while they arranged matters with Parliament.

Finding that most of the members objected to bringing Charles to trial, they sent a certain Colonel Pride with a number of soldiers to the door of the House of Commons, with orders to turn out all the members who did not agree with the army and its leaders. So many were thus dismissed that only about fifty or sixty members were left in Parliament. This happened December 6th, 1648, and was called "Pride's Purge." On the 16th of the same month it was settled that the King should be tried as a traitor.

On the 20th of January, 1649, he was brought to Westminster Hall, and his trial began. He was asked to plead guilty or not guilty, but refused, saying that those who were acting as his judges had been born his subjects, and could not bring him lawfully to trial. Thirty-two witnesses against him were then examined, and on the 27th he was condemned to die as a "tyrant, traitor, murderer, and enemy of his country."

Charles certainly did not deserve all these hard names; and although his own lack of truthfulness

Trial and
execution
of King
Charles.
1649.

had brought him to this case, he found consolation in the belief of his good intentions, and in the thought that he had only done his duty in defending the kingly power handed down to him. Opinions differ as to his character, but never did he seem so noble as when face to face with death. He showed great calmness and high courage. He slept soundly during the three nights that remained before his execution.

His younger children, Elizabeth and Henry, came to bid him farewell. Taking the little boy upon his knee, he told him they were going to cut off his father's head, and perhaps afterwards might make the child king; but that he must not be a king as long as his brothers Charles and James were alive. "They will," he continued, "cut off thy brothers' heads when they can catch them, and thy head, too, they will cut off at last. Therefore, I charge thee, do not be made king by them." "I will be torn to pieces first," answered the child.

As Charles stood upon the scaffold before Whitehall he said, "It is for the liberties of the people that I am come here. If I would have assented to have all things changed by the power of the sword, I need not to have come hither; and, therefore, I tell you, and I pray God it be not laid to your charge, that I am a martyr to the people."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What promise did the Commons now exact from the King? By what name has this Parliament been known in consequence? Mention some of their proceedings. What was Charles's next action?—2. What terrible event occurred in Ireland during his absence? Describe the debate on the "Grand Remonstrance."—3. Give an account of the King's behaviour with regard to the "five members."—4. To what conclusion did the King now come? Give the date of his leaving Whitehall. Where and when did he set up his standard? What party names arose about this time?—5. Who was the commander-in-chief of the Parliamentary army, and which side was at first the most successful?—6. Give an account of Oliver Cromwell and his life until this time. What did he consider the cause of the early defeats of the Parliament men, and how did he set to work to remedy this?—7. When and where was obtained Cromwell's first great victory? What difference of opinion now arose in the Parliamentary party? What were Cromwell's own opinions on

the subject? Give an account of the dispute between Cromwell and the Earl of Manchester after the battle of Newbury and the results.—8. Who was made commander-in-chief, and in what battle did the new model army now show its mettle? Give the date. What is reported to have been said by the leader of the King's army after the battle of Stow? When was it fought?—9. Explain the difference between the Presbyterians and the Independents. Who belonged to the former party, and who to the latter?—10. Where did Charles now go, and how was he treated? How did the army act at this crisis? Why did not Charles give them a direct answer?—11. What brought on the second civil war, and how did it end? On what did Cromwell and the army now determine? To what castle was the King removed in consequence?—12. What step was next taken by Parliament in order to secure the trial of the King? What was the date of the trial and execution?

CHAPTER XLI.

THE COMMONWEALTH. 1649—1660.

OLIVER CROMWELL.

Born 1599. Died 1658.

AS soon as the King was dead trumpeters were sent round the city of London and other towns, telling the people that whosoever proclaimed another king without the leave of Parliament would be considered a traitor, and as such suffer death. The Parliament had determined that England should no longer be a kingdom, but what they called a Commonwealth; and those members of Parliament who had not been sent away by Colonel Pride when he purged the House of Commons were to be the leaders of the nation. The Church of England had been struck down in 1646, and a Puritan worship put up in its stead. The House of Lords was now done away with. Four noblemen, who had been leaders in the last civil war, were tried and put to death; and Oliver Cromwell was sent to Ireland that he might bring that country into order.

The dreadful rebellion and massacre of the late reign had never yet been punished, and the Irish Roman Catholics, who were still at war with the English Protestants, were joined now by many of the old cavaliers, who wished to make Charles, the last King's son, King of England.

War and disorder, with all sorts of horrors, reigned in the land; and Cromwell determined to put them

New plans
of Govern-
ment.

Cromwell
in Ireland.
1649.

down sternly and swiftly. He landed at Dublin on the 15th of August, 1649, and, having given Slaughter at orders that any one who robbed or in any Drogheda. way ill-used the country people should be put to death, he marched to Drogheda. First telling the governor what he was to expect if he did not give the town into his hands, he attacked it with his army on September 10th. In the fight which followed the troops within were slain by Cromwell's Ironsides with very little mercy. His excuse for this deed was that the men he slew were "wretches" who had shed much innocent blood, and that he believed it might prevent bloodshed in future, "which," said he, "are the satisfactory grounds for such actions, which otherwise cannot but work remorse and regret."

From Drogheda Cromwell went to Wexford, which was taken in the same way on the 11th of October.

At Wexford. After these two victories the enemy were filled with such terror that Cromwell had little difficulty about the rest of the war. Ireland was well-nigh subdued before Cromwell was called away. He entered London May 31st, 1650, and was

Cromwell's met by a great crowd of people, all ready triumph. to do him honour and conduct him in state 1650. to his home. "What a crowd came out to see your lordship's triumph," said one to him. "Yes," returned Oliver, "but if it were to see me hanged how many more would there be!"

But Cromwell was not allowed to remain long in peace, for the Scotch were about to make war on the English, and the general who had won War with Scotland. so many battles was deemed the best for 1650. this enterprise also.

The fact was that the Scotch had been filled with anger when they heard of the execution of the King; for although they had fought against him, they had never dreamed of putting him to death. They now determined to make his son Charles king by force of arms. But they first made him promise, much against his will, to uphold their Presbyterian worship.

Cromwell was obliged, therefore, to hasten to Scotland. Reaching Edinburgh on the 20th of July, he found that he could not, on account of its strength, then attack the Scotch army, and was obliged to return to Dunbar, where, ^{Battle of Dunbar. 1650.} shut in by the sea on one side, and a hill on which the Scots were encamped on the other, Cromwell began to lose hope. "We are upon an engagement very difficult," he wrote. "The enemy lieth so upon the hill that we know not how to come that way without great difficulty. Our men fall sick beyond imagination." His joy was great when, on the 3rd of September, in the dim dawn, he saw the Scots begin to descend the hill. "The Lord," he exclaimed, "hath delivered them into our hands." Then he charged in with all his might on the Scotch army, saying as the enemy began to retreat "They run! I profess they run!" and then as the sun rose he added, "Let God arise, and let his enemies be scattered." The Scotch army was completely broken, and Cromwell went to Edinburgh, where he stayed during the winter and spring.

By August, however, the Scotch had made ready another army to fight against Cromwell, and with the young King Charles II. at their head invaded England (1651), and got as far as ^{Battle of Worcester. 1651.} Worcester. There Cromwell won another great victory on the 3rd of September, driving the Scotch right through the streets of the town, and thus putting an end for the present to all hopes of success for the royal cause. Charles fled for his life, and sought shelter with a farmer called Penderel on the borders of Staffordshire. He remained hidden for some days, while the Roundheads were searching for him far and wide. Once, it is said, seeing some of Cromwell's soldiers drawing near, he climbed up into an oak-tree, and remained safe among its branches while the men were seeking for him. At length, after many adventures, Charles succeeded in reaching France.

Cromwell had declared that the victory at Wor-

cester might prove a "crowning mercy;" and in this he was right. It was his last battle. He was able after it to return home, and he hoped the English would now settle down in peace, and that law and order might henceforth rule the land. He soon found that it was easier to win a battle than to bring the nation to "a settlement."

The members who remained of the Long Parliament were called, in scorn, the "Rump." They still kept their seats, and were not in any hurry to leave them. But there were now so few of them left that they could not certainly be looked upon as a free Parliament chosen by the nation. Yet the act which had been passed under Charles I., ordering that this Parliament should not be dissolved without its own consent, gave them the power to continue whether the English people wished it or not. The truth is, these men knew that if another Parliament was chosen by the nation it might at once set to work to undo all that they had done, and perhaps ask the young King Charles II. to return. To prevent this they thought it would be a very good plan for new members to be chosen for all the seats left vacant by Pride's Purge, while the old ones should still keep their places as before.

Cromwell saw that this idea was not an honest one; for if all the old members kept their seats how could it be truthfully called a new Parliament? And the Rump were already doing very unjust things, which roused Cromwell's anger. He knew that the best way to secure freedom and a good government in England was to have a king (or, as he expressed it, a single person), and a Parliament as of old, each serving as a check upon the other.

This being the "settlement" to which he wished to bring the nation, we may imagine his dismay when he heard that the Rump were, with all the haste they could, getting ready to pass a bill which would soon be law, providing that they should still keep their seats and new members be chosen.

In great wrath Cromwell, on the 20th of April, 1653,

ordered a few of his own Ironsides to attend him, and marched swiftly with them to the House of Commons. The Parliament, little thinking ^{Expulsion of the} what was before it, was sitting busy at ^{"Rump."} work over the new bill, when Cromwell ^{1653.} entered clad in plain clothes and black worsted stockings, and sat down as he had been used to do. For some time he sat still and listened to the talk of the members; but when they began to put one to another the question whether the bill should pass or not, he rose from his seat, saying, "This is the time; I must do it!"

Then he began a speech, in which he told them at first of their good deeds, and praised their "pains and care of the public good." But he soon altered his style, and spoke of their injustice, delays of justice, and self-interest. "This is strange language," said one member; "within the walls of Parliament too!" at which Cromwell, no longer able to contain his anger, exclaimed, "Come, come, we have had enough of this; I will put an end to your prating; it is not fit that you should sit here any longer!" Then calling in his soldiers, he went on, "You are no Parliament! Some of you are drunkards, some corrupt, unjust persons; begone! The Lord has done with you!" Then lifting the mace from the table, he said, "What shall we do with this bauble? Take it away." The House was emptied, the doors were locked, and the most memorable Parliament of our history came to an end. It did indeed meet again some years afterwards as a matter of form; but this was the real end of it.

The government of England was now all centred in one man, and that man was Oliver Cromwell. It was, as he found afterwards, "a burden too heavy for a human creature to bear." ^{Personal rule.} He did not want to be a tyrant; and he thought that if he gathered round him a number of the most religious Puritans in the land they would be able to govern England until the people had grown so perfect that they might be allowed once more a

free Parliament. This was a mistake; for as only some of the English were Puritans, it was not fair to have only Puritans to govern them. The laws made by the Puritans only suited their own views, and they never seemed to understand that there are two sides to every question.

Besides, the men chosen by Oliver had not been trained to rule, and fancied they could in a few weeks alter laws and customs which had taken many years to make. Before long they began to disagree among themselves; and at last, on December 11th, some of the members, feeling how unfit they were for their work, gave back into Oliver's hands the power he had given them.

As Cromwell's new plan had failed, he returned to his old idea, and determined that the land should be ruled by a Parliament freely chosen, with a single person at the head. Oliver was the only man who could be chosen as chief of the nation. It was therefore settled amongst the officers of the army that he should henceforth have the title of "Lord Protector of the Commonwealth." It was also declared that men from all parties, except declared Royalists, might be chosen as members, and that Parliament was to meet every year and remain sitting for five months. Therefore there was a grand ceremony at Westminster Hall on the 16th of December, 1653; and Oliver, dressed in a rich but plain suit of black velvet, with a cloak of the same, and about his hat a broad band of gold, was made Protector, and saluted by great shoutings of the people.

He began his reign by trying to improve religion and to reform the law of the land. In order to accomplish the first object he gathered together a number of men whom he called "Triers," because they were to make it their business to examine the character and behaviour of all preachers, and to take care that their religion should be earnest and their lives good. If the Triers were satisfied with any

Oliver
Lord
Protector.
1653—
1658.

minister he might be allowed to preach, whether he were a Presbyterian, Baptist, or Independent. Cromwell also reformed the courts of law.

Yet for all this, when Parliament met, September 3rd, 1654, it was found that many of the members were by no means satisfied with the form of government now set up. They declined to go on with what the Protector considered practical business, and began at once an endless discussion as to whether or not this present arrangement was a good one. In particular they disputed whether it were best to have a single person at the head of affairs or to have no one. Cromwell grew impatient. He determined to make the members sign a paper in which they promised "to be true and faithful to the Lord Protector, nor to try to alter government as it was now settled." Those who would not sign this paper had to go about their business; those who did remained.

But even they did little good; and as soon as five months, counting four weeks to a month, were over, the Protector again dissolved the Parliament. Cromwell could not act as he had done of late without winning hatred from many persons. Plots were often made against his life, and plans were set on foot to bring Charles II. back to England.

Oliver saw that if the country were not held down by a strong hand civil war might begin again; and this he, above all things, dreaded. To prevent it he divided the country into ten ^{Military} districts, and over each district he set a ^{government.} 1655. major-general, who was to enforce order as strictly as in the army. That these men ruled justly, even their enemies confessed; but to make men obey through the fear of an army is always a bad thing, and Cromwell was not satisfied until he had got together another Parliament, September 17th, 1656. He was, besides, anxious for money, having begun a war with Spain (1655) because that country would not let English merchants trade in their colonies. In this war Blake, the great sea captain, took the island of Jamaica.

With Spain Oliver was always at enmity, as he considered that country to be the great upholder of the Roman Catholic religion, while he showed a good deal of friendliness towards the French nation. But even with the French he would take high ground when he thought the interests of religion required it. Thus, when the news reached England that the Duke of Savoy had been cruelly ill-treating some of his Protestant subjects who lived in the valleys among the Alps, he sent at once to the King of France and bade him compel the Duke of Savoy to stop his persecution, or it would be the worse for him. This message had its effect, and the Protestants of the valleys were allowed to remain in peace.

As Cromwell's new Parliament acted no better than the former one, he determined, in 1657, to call another House of Lords to act as a check upon it. This was simply returning to the old form of government, which men now saw to be a good one. To restore it more fully, Parliament offered to make Oliver king. He might have accepted the title, but his old Ironsides were so much against the idea that, after thinking the matter over for some time, he refused, and still remained Protector.

As soon as Oliver refused to be made king, the House of Commons refused to acknowledge the new House of Lords; and Oliver, thoroughly disgusted with their behaviour, again dissolved Parliament, February 4th, 1658, saying, "If this be the end of your sitting, and this be your carriage, I think it high time that an end be put to your sitting. And I do dissolve this Parliament! And let God be judge between you and me!"

The ceaseless worry of all these changes had had its effect on Oliver; his health began to fail, and he had troubles in his own family. His youngest daughter, Frances, lost her husband after having been married three months; and another daughter, Mrs. Claypole, who

Foreign
affairs.

Attempt to
revive the
old Consti-
tution.
1657.

Death of
Cromwell.
1658.

was dearly loved by Oliver, fell sick. She was ill some time, her father watching by her side in great distress. When she died he suddenly broke down, and his death occurred on the 3rd of September, 1658, the day on which he had fought his great battles of Dunbar and Worcester.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What form of government did the Parliament establish in England?—2. For what purpose was Cromwell sent to Ireland? Describe his fashion of waging war in that country. Give the dates of the capture of Drogheda and Wexford.—3. How had the Scotch acted when they heard of the execution of Charles I.? When did Cromwell reach Edinburgh? Give an account of the battles of Dunbar and Worcester, naming their dates.—4. Why could not the “Rump” be considered a free Parliament? By what Act were the members entitled to keep their seats? What form of government did Cromwell prefer?—5. Relate how Cromwell turned out the “Long Parliament.”—6. In whom was the government of England now centred? What plan did Cromwell form for ruling the nation? Why did it prove a failure?—7. What high title was now bestowed on Cromwell? How did he try to improve the religion of the land? Describe the behaviour of Cromwell’s next Parliament. What did he compel them to do? How long did it last?—8. Why was Cromwell forced to set up military rule? Who were the Major-Generals?—9. With what country was Cromwell at war at this time? Name the island won for England, and by whom was it taken?—10. How did Cromwell put a stop to the persecution of the Protestants by the Duke of Savoy?—11. To what form of government did Cromwell now return? Why did he refuse the title of King? What happened on his refusal?—12. Give the date of the death of Cromwell.

CHAPTER XLII.

CHARLES II. 1660—1685.

IT was said that Cromwell, when dying, named his son Richard as his successor. This is very doubtful. Richard was by no means fit to rule, being an idle, careless gentleman, and having no qualities which his father's old soldiers could respect. The army was still the strongest part of the nation, and soon growing tired of Richard, it dismissed him from power, and recalled the old members of the Long Parliament. Richard at once retired to private life, and peaceably attained a good old age.

Richard
Cromwell.
1658—
1659.

Before long the army again quarrelled with the Parliament, or "Rump," as it was called, and sent the members away a second time. The nation grew alarmed, and began both to fear and hate the army. The country was saved by General Monk, who commanded the English in Scotland. He first refused to acknowledge the Government which the army had set up in London, and, without telling any one what his design was, he marched to the capital, declaring for a "free Parliament." Again the Rump took their seats, and then the Long Parliament, which, in form at least, had lasted for twenty years, solemnly dissolved itself.

General
Monk.
1659—
1660.

A new assembly was then called, and as it was summoned by writs not issued by the King, it was named the Convention Parliament. This assembly at once recalled Charles II. The King landed at Dover in May, 1660, and on

The Con-
vention.
1660.

the 29th of that month he entered London amid great rejoicings. He said with a laugh, as he passed through the shouting crowd to ^{The Restoration.} Whitehall, "It is my own fault that I did ^{1660.} not come back sooner, for I find nobody who does not tell me he has always longed for my return."

And, indeed, the English nation had seldom given way to such joy as at the Restoration of the House of Stuart. The rule of the Puritans had proved a failure. They had tried to force ^{Failure of the Puritans.} people to be religious against their will, and had looked with anger on fun and frolic. The theatres had been shut up and the actors punished, while all the old English sports and games had been condemned. The May-pole and the dances on the village green had been forbidden, and the keeping of Christmas had been treated as a sin.

The public generally, who cared little for sober things, awoke as if from a bad dream, then went to the opposite extreme, and gave themselves up to drinking, swearing, and every kind ^{Evils of reaction.} of vice. The King himself set the example; for although clever and amusing, he was idle, untruthful, and faithless; and he chose his companions among the worst men and women in the country. He cared little for religion of any kind; but if he had a preference it was for the Roman Catholic Church, though in his life he never found courage to say so. His brother James, Duke of York, was, however, an avowed Romanist, and in consequence rather unpopular.

To punish the judges of Charles I. was the first act of the new rulers. Thirteen of them were executed as traitors, nineteen imprisoned for life, while nineteen more fled to other ^{Revenge of Charles II.} lands. Their next deed was an unworthy one, which will always be remembered to their discredit. Not content with vengeance on the living, they dug up the dead bodies of Cromwell and his two friends, Ireton and Bradshaw, from their graves in Westminster Abbey, hung them on the gallows at

Tyburn, and then burned them. The body of Blake, the great sea captain, was also taken from its tomb in the Abbey and buried in St. Margaret's Church.

In 1661 a new Parliament was called, the members of which were for the most part Cavaliers, and full of hatred to the Puritans. Not content with getting back the Church of England service for themselves, they began to persecute the Dissenters by making new and cruel laws against them. They forbade any service save that of the Church of England to be used. But this was not enough for their purpose. Some of the more liberal Puritan ministers would not have objected to use the service with very slight alterations. But Parliament ordered all ministers in the Church to declare that every word contained in the Prayer Book was true.

Noncon-
formist
clergymen.
1662.

There were at this time many ministers in England who had won the love of their congregations, and yet could not make the declaration required. Two thousand of them now felt it their duty to leave the Church, and quitted their parishes on the 24th of August, 1662.

After this it was made a crime for more than five persons to meet together for religious worship unless they used the Prayer Book. Such meetings were called *conventicles*; but this order prevented some households even from assembling for family prayer. All who disobeyed these laws were thrown into prison, and the jails were filled with Dissenters, whose only fault was preaching and praying in a way not pleasing to their rulers.

In 1665 a terrible event occurred. The plague appeared in London. The streets of the city were so

The Plague
of London.
1665.

narrow, and the houses so crowded together, that there was little to oppose its progress. It spread quickly from one dwelling to another. So terrified were the people that all who could fled to the country, and grass was seen growing in the empty streets. On every house in which lay a person sick of the plague was painted a red cross, and in the night men went with carts round

the city, bidding those within doors to bring out their dead. The bodies were cast into deep pits, and covered over with earth. For many years no one cared to visit the spots thus used. So great was the alarm felt, that many of the Church of England clergymen abandoned their churches out of fear of the plague, and left their places to be taken by dissenting ministers. Instead of feeling grateful for the courage of the latter, the The Five Mile Act. Government now passed a law called the 1665. Five Mile Act, the effect of which was that no Non-conformist minister might come within five miles of any corporate town, or of any place in which he had preached.

The plague was followed the next year, 1666, by a great fire. It broke out at a bakehouse in Pudding Lane, near London Bridge, raged for five days, and did not stop until it reached Pye The Fire of London. Corner, near the Temple. The fact that 1666. it began in Pudding Lane and ended at Pye Corner led many people to say that the fire was a judgment on the gluttony of the times. All the houses between these two spots were burnt to ashes, and old St. Paul's Cathedral as well as eighty-eight churches were destroyed. The flames were only stayed at last by the desperate measure of blowing up a large block of buildings, and so making a gap that the fire could not cross.

The present Cathedral of St. Paul's was built afterwards from the plan of a great architect, Sir Christopher Wren. The Monument still standing marks the place where the fire The Monument. broke out.

The King's chief minister during the early years of his reign was Sir Edward Hyde, created Earl of Clarendon. He had sat in the Long Parliament, and sided with Charles I. when Lord Clarendon. the civil war began. Clarendon's daughter, 1660-1667. Anne, had married James, Duke of York, and they had two children, both of whom became in their turn Queens of England.

Clarendon was one of the most honest men of that time: but no virtue was fashionable in the court of

French policy of Clarendon. Charles II. and his sale, in 1667, of Dunkirk to France, a place won by the English in Oliver's days, roused against him the anger of the nation. Spain had been for many years England's greatest enemy abroad; but the power of that country had of late been growing less and less, while France had been rising to great strength and importance. It had at this period become the most powerful as well as the most dangerous kingdom in Europe. Clarendon, who was an old man, did not understand that since his youth a change had come over Europe, and that France, and not Spain, was to be guarded against. He, therefore, lent himself to the designs of the French King, Louis XIV., who was ambitious of bringing both Holland and Spain under his own control.

Clarendon obtained as a wife for Charles a Portuguese princess, Catherine of Braganza. This gratified Louis, because Portugal had lately freed itself from Spanish rule through French aid. To please him, also, Clarendon was willing to use his influence against the Dutch.

A quarrel had arisen between the English and Dutch colonists in Africa, on the coast of Guinea,

War with Holland. 1665. where both parties were anxious to retain for themselves the whole of the trade in gold and slaves. This dispute had been fanned

into a flame by Charles, who believed he saw in it a chance of making a little money for himself. War was declared March 14th, 1665. James, the Duke of York, commanded the fleet in this war, and won a victory off Lowestoft. This victory was followed by a defeat in 1666, from which, however, the English recovered in a measure by winning another sea-fight off the North Foreland. They drove the Dutch back into their ports, and landing, burnt the unprotected town of Tetzels. The Dutch were so enraged at this action that they sent a fleet to England,

which sailed in triumph up the Thames, burnt all the shipping in the dockyard at Chatham, and kept London in a state of siege for three weeks. The English were obliged to make peace with Holland in July, 1667, at Breda.

The country was, indeed, brought almost to ruin through the selfishness of the King and his party. His courtiers spent their time in pleasure and vice, while the fleet was commanded by boys, who were generally quite ignorant of seamanship. The wages of the sailors often remained unpaid, and some of them even went to fight for the Dutch in order to earn enough money to keep them from starvation. Great suffering also had been caused by the plague and fire of London. The nation longed for a change, and made a victim of the Earl of Clarendon. He was accused of high treason and fled this country, to which he was forbidden ever to return. During his exile, which lasted for the rest of his life, he spent his time in writing a history of the civil war.

The men who succeeded Clarendon as the King's advisers were five in number. Their names were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, and Lauderdale; and their initials thus ^{Fall of Clarendon. 1667.} ^{The Cabal.} formed the word "cabal." So underhand were their actions that this term has always since been used in a bad sense, and when we speak of a cabal we mean a party of men selfishly seeking their own ends instead of their country's good.

Although Charles and his friends favoured France, the English Parliament looked with distrust on that country, and on the 23rd of January, 1668, forced the King to form what ^{The Triple Alliance 1668.} was called the Triple Alliance between Holland, England, and Sweden against France. Louis was not able to stand alone against these three nations; he was obliged to stay his advance on the Low Countries, and consented to ^{Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.} sign, on the 2nd of May, the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

But Charles continued to plot with Louis against his English subjects; and in 1670 the two kings signed the Treaty of Dover, in which Charles agreed to declare himself a Roman Catholic and help France against Holland, while Louis promised to pay Charles £200,000 a year, and lend him an army to use against the English if they discovered his treachery towards them. The consequence of this agreement was, that France soon after renewed the Dutch war and invaded Holland.

Since the sixteenth century the united provinces of the Netherlands had been a republic, that is, they had governed themselves without any sovereign. The House of Orange, owing to the singular greatness of character possessed by several of its princes, had won the first place in the Government, and were *stadtholders*, or chief magistrates. William Henry, the reigning Prince of Orange, was the son of Mary, daughter of Charles I., and although young in years, he possessed wonderful courage and wisdom. He at once took the lead of his countrymen, refused the terms of peace proposed by his enemies, and told the Dutch that, rather than lose their freedom, it would be better to call in the sea to their aid. The people listened to his words, and their courage rose; they opened the dykes, the country was soon covered with water, and the French army was compelled to retreat. Holland was saved, and in 1674 England again made peace with that country.

A "Test Act" was passed in 1673, which required every person who held any post under Government to swear that the King was Head of the Church, and to take the sacrament according to the service of the Church of England. This was the means of putting an end to the rule of the Cabal; for Clifford, being a Roman Catholic, refused to take the oath, while Ashley, now Lord Shaftesbury, was dismissed from office. The latter became the head of the "Country Party," so called because it was opposed to the Court Party.

The minister who now came into power was Sir

Thomas Osborne, created Earl of Danby, a man who, while wishing to increase the power of the King, was anxious to go back to the policy of the "Triple Alliance," that is, the union of England, Holland, and Sweden against France. This gave a great deal of uncertainty to the conduct of the Government; for Danby was constantly urging the King to make war on France, while Charles was being secretly paid by Louis to remain at peace.

Louis saw that the English Parliament was a great drawback to his plans, and in 1675 gave Charles a bribe of 50,000 crowns to prorogue it from November, 1675, to February, 1677. During this interval the two kings, with the knowledge of Danby, made a compact not to enter into any treaty without the consent of each other. When Parliament reassembled, the Duke of Buckingham, with the Lords Salisbury, Shaftesbury, and Warton, declared the late prorogation unlawful, and they were all four sent as prisoners to the Tower.

The Commons then asked the King to go to the assistance of the Dutch, and an army was collected for this purpose. But it was never used; for Louis again bribed Charles to prorogue Parliament.

Demand for
an alliance
with
Holland.

In 1678, Mary, the eldest daughter of James, Duke of York, was married to William, Prince of Orange, much to the displeasure of Louis, who determined to revenge himself on Charles and his ministers in the following way.

Marriage of
the Princess
Mary to
William of
Orange.
1678.

Danby had drawn up a treaty, and the King had signed it, which promised that, if Louis paid him a certain sum, he would remain neutral should Holland refuse the terms of peace then being arranged between the French and Dutch at Nimeguen. When these terms were at length settled, Louis allowed the whole affair to be made known to the English Parliament by Edward Montague, the British ambassador at

Discovery of
secret
agreement
with Louis.

Paris, who returned home and obtained a seat in the House of Commons. The nation was at once roused to great anger, and Danby was impeached.

He pleaded that he had only obeyed the King's commands; but this was not considered a sufficient

Impeachment of Danby.

excuse, and it was finally settled that the minister and not the King was responsible.

This is an important point in the English constitution, and is the meaning of the common maxim that "the King can do no wrong." In

Meaning of the maxim, "the King can do no wrong."

affairs of state the sovereign always acts on the advice of a minister, and therefore if anything goes wrong it is the advising minister and not the monarch who is to blame. This principle has only been very

gradually settled after many contests, and the case of Lord Danby helped very much to secure it. In this instance, indeed, the decision was scarcely just, because the King had been determined to have his own way. But as Parliament persisted in acting on this principle, ministers soon refused to hold office unless their advice was taken. Thus at last the custom was fixed that the King should always act by the advice of his ministers, who must take the blame if the action is wrong.

To save Lord Danby, Charles, at the beginning of
 Dissolution. 1679. 1679, ventured to dissolve the Parliament, which had existed for eighteen years.

Meanwhile another event had caused great excitement among the people. Titus Oates, a bad man,

The Popish plot.

1678. whose chief qualities were selfishness, falsehood, and cunning, had once been a Baptist minister, then a clergyman of the Church of England, but having been degraded for misconduct he had joined the Romish Church. Thinking to win fame thereby, Oates invented a story which brought disgrace and death on many innocent persons. He declared that the Pope had given England to the Jesuits, who were secretly plotting to set fire to the ships in the Thames, and, having done so, were, at a given signal from their friends, to rise and murder all the Protestants.

These stories were firmly believed by many; and several Roman Catholics were arrested and put to death on the very slightest evidence. Scarcely any citizen thought himself safe to walk the streets unless he carried with him a bludgeon, called a "Protestant flail," to guard himself from violence. Terror of the people.

The new Parliament, elected in 1679 in the midst of this excitement, attempted to pass an "Exclusion Bill," which would prevent James, Duke of York, on account of his faith, from succeeding to the throne at his brother's death. To this the King, though strongly urged, could not be brought to consent. New Parliament. 1679.
The Exclusion Bill. 1679-1681.

But although the Parliament was not able to pass the Exclusion Bill, it carried a far greater measure, the *Habeas Corpus* Act. From the time of the Great Charter in King John's reign no freeman could, according to law, be long kept in prison before trial, as he was able to obtain what was called, from the Latin words with which it began, a writ* of *Habeas Corpus* compelling the law courts to try his case. Habeas Corpus Act. 1679.

But all sorts of difficulties were being constantly thrown in the way of prisoners when they wished to obtain this writ, especially if they had been committed by a warrant of the Royal Council. Thus innocent persons were often detained in prison a very long time. By the law now passed, it was enacted that whenever this writ was applied for the judge must, under pain of certain penalties, be forced to issue it.

Many disputes arose in Parliament about the Exclusion Bill and other matters, and the disputants earned the nicknames of Whig and Tory. These names have been used ever since, though now generally replaced by Liberal and Conservative. The Whigs were the successors of the Roundheads, and the Tories of the Cavaliers. Whigs and Tories.

* *Writ* means simply *writing*. It is applied to certain formal papers containing orders from courts of justice.

The Whigs had so great a distrust of James, that they tried to set up another claimant to the throne.

This was the Duke of Monmouth, the son of Charles II. and a Welsh girl called Lucy Walters. Monmouth and his friends declared that the King had legally though secretly married her years before. Had this tale been true, Monmouth, not James, would have been the heir to the throne.

But Charles, faithless though he was, would not debar his brother from his rights; and in consequence of the obstinacy of the Whigs in trying to exclude James, he dissolved this and two following Parliaments in rapid succession, and for the last four years of his life (1681—1685) he reigned without one. Meanwhile he went on borrowing money from the King of France with which to carry on the government.

Charles revenged himself on the Whigs by putting in force against them the severest of the severe laws of that time. Driven to despair, many of the Whigs began to plan insurrections, and some of the most desperate formed, in 1683, a plot to murder the King and his brother as they were returning from Newmarket. The murderers were to conceal themselves in a house called the Rye House, which the princes must pass on the road. This caused the plot to be afterwards known by the name of the Rye House Plot.

This conspiracy was betrayed by one of those who had taken part in it, and in consequence several persons were put to death. The most noted victims were William Lord Russell and Algernon Sidney, who were found guilty on the evidence of a single witness, and executed. The characters of both men were such as to make the charge against them utterly improbable, if not absurd. In the case of Lord Russell, so strong was the general belief of his innocence that the people around the scaffold on which he died dipped their handkerchiefs in his

blood, regarding it as the sacred blood of a martyr. Algernon Sidney was a pure and noble-minded man, who had fought indeed against Charles I., but had equally opposed Cromwell when the Protector seemed to him to have become a tyrant.

But the reign of Charles II. was now fast drawing to a close. The King had with all his faults managed to keep the affections of his subjects, and no one thought his end was near. It was ^{Death of Charles II.} to the surprise of all that he was taken ^{1685.} suddenly ill, and died after a few days' suffering, February 6th, 1685. On his death-bed he acknowledged himself a Roman Catholic.

It was during the reign of Charles II., when Puritanism was held in the greatest contempt, that the two chief masterpieces of Puritan literature—the “Paradise Lost” of John Milton, and Bunyan’s “Pilgrim’s Progress”—appeared. Milton was born in London, 1608, and from his earliest boyhood he seemed conscious of his great gifts. When quite young he formed the determination to write something that “the world would not willingly let die.” ^{Literature.}

Before the Civil Wars Milton had composed his short poems of “L’Allegro,” “Il Penseroso,” “Comus,” and “Lycidas,” all of which display a happier tone of mind than those produced in later years. Milton took the side of the Parliament against Charles I., and wrote several prose works in defence of his opinions, the most famous of which was “A Speech for the Liberty of Unlicensed Printing.”

During the Commonwealth Milton, in spite of the blindness which had gradually come over him, became Cromwell’s Latin secretary, and led a very busy life. But it was not until after the ^{“Paradise Lost.”} Restoration that he composed his greatest works, the “Paradise Lost,” the “Paradise Regained,” and “Samson Agonistes.” The first of these is considered the grandest *epic* poem in the English language. Milton died in 1674.

John Bunyan, the author of the "Pilgrim's Progress," was born at Elstow, near Bedford, in 1628, and fought for a short time as a soldier in the civil wars. But it is not certain which side he took. At that time he had probably not given any serious attention to the rights or wrongs of either side. In 1660 Bunyan, who had joined the Baptists, was arrested for preaching and sent to Bedford jail, where he remained twelve years. During his imprisonment he wrote his wonderful dream, and it is to this fact he alludes when he says in the opening words, "As I walked through the wilderness of this world, I lighted on a certain place, where was a den." Besides the "Pilgrim's Progress," Bunyan wrote the "Holy War" and various other works. He died in 1688, and was buried in the Bunhill Fields burying-ground in the City Road, London.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Who was, according to report, named as Cromwell's successor? Why was he unfit for this trust? How did the army act with regard to him? Give an account of the actions of General Monk, and the Long Parliament.—2. What name was given to the assembly then summoned, and why? What was the first action of this assembly?—3. When and at what place did the King land?—4. What was the general feeling towards the Puritans at this time? Describe the character of the new Sovereign?—5. How were the Judges of Charles I. punished, and what unworthy revenge was taken on the dead?—6. What notable law was passed under Charles II. to regulate the services of the Church? How many ministers left the Church of England in consequence? Give the date of their leaving. What was the Conventicle Act?—7. What was the Plague of London? By what event was the plague followed? Give the dates of both events. Why was the "Five Mile Act" passed?—8. Who was the King's chief minister during the early years of his reign? What Prince did his daughter marry? Give the names of her children.—9. What was the foreign policy of Clarendon, and how did he rouse the anger of the English nation? What gave rise to the war between the English and Dutch? Relate the chief events. When and where was peace made?—10. Describe the state of the country at this time. Of whom did the nation make a victim?—11. Give the names of the men who succeeded Clarendon as the King's advisers. What word was formed by the initials of their names, and what meaning has it now? What was the Triple Alliance? What was its date?—12. Explain the causes which led the English to form it. To what did this force Louis? What agreement was made between Charles and Louis at the treaty of Dover? Give the date.—13. From whom was William Henry, Prince of Orange, descended? Describe his behaviour at this time.—14. When was the "Test Act" passed? What effect did it have?—15. What gave uncertainty to the Government of Danby? Describe the further intrigues of Charles and the French

King?—16. What caused the impeachment of Danby? What did he plead on behalf of himself, and how was the matter finally settled? Explain the meaning of the maxim, "The King can do no wrong." What measure did Charles take in order to save the minister?—17. Describe the Popish plot. Name the Bill which the Parliament then attempted to pass, and explain the great measure that it really carried.—18. What party names arose about this time?

Who was set up as claimant to the throne, and by what party? How did Charles revenge himself on them?—19. Give an account of the celebrated men who were executed on suspicion of having taken part in the Rye House plot?—20. Give the date of the death of Charles II. Of what Church did he acknowledge himself a member on his death-bed?—21. Give some account of John Milton and John Bunyan.

CHAPTER XLIII.

JAMES II. 1685—1688.

MOVER, perhaps by the suddenness of his brother's death James promised when he came to the throne to rule according to the laws of the land. His very first actions seemed to give the lie to his words, for he took as his right before Parliament met money which had only been granted to Charles for life. He also set up in public the Roman Catholic worship, attending mass openly.

James next began a work of revenge on those who had borne false witness against the Romanists in the time of the Popish plot. He chose as his helper a man named Jeffreys, who had been in the last reign Lord Chief Justice of the King's Bench. The delight of Jeffreys was to spend his days in ill-treating prisoners and his nights in drinking, and the King thought he might use his cruel nature for his own purposes.

Oates and Dangerfield, a man who had helped him, were first brought to trial before Jeffreys, and condemned to be flogged so severely that Dangerfield died, while Oates, barely escaping with life, was thrown into a dark cell in Newgate, from which he was not released until the next reign.

But Jeffreys was quite as cruel to the innocent as to the guilty. One of his next victims was an eminent Dissenting minister, Richard Baxter. Although Baxter had lived all through the period of the civil wars, he seems to have shared little in the bitter feelings of the time.

Richard
Baxter.
B. 1615.
D. 1691.

He had, however, in one of his books spoken angrily of the way in which Dissenters were treated. For this alone he was brought before Jeffreys to be tried. Here is the account one writer has given us of the trial. “‘My lord,’ said Baxter, ‘I have been much blamed by Dissenters for speaking respectfully of bishops.’ ‘Baxter for bishops!’ cried the judge; ‘that’s a merry conceit indeed. I know what you mean by bishops—rascals like yourself; factious, snivelling Presbyterians.’ Again Baxter essayed to speak, and again Jeffreys bellowed, ‘Richard, Richard, dost thou think we will let thee poison the court? Thou hast written books enough to load a cart, and every book as full of sedition as an egg is full of meat. I’ll look after thee.’ The noise of weeping was heard from some of those who surrounded Baxter. ‘Snivelling calves!’ said the judge.” Baxter was condemned to be imprisoned.

The Covenanters in Scotland were treated even worse than the Dissenters in England, and any one of them who dared to preach, ^{The Scotch Covenanters.} either under a roof or in the open air, was condemned to death. An army was sent under the command of John Graham of Claverhouse to carry out these severities.

Many poor men and women were killed by Claverhouse and his soldiers, for no cause but the faith they professed, and numerous accounts remain ^{Martyrs} of their sufferings. The story with which people are most familiar is that of the drowning of Margaret Maclachan and Margaret Wilson. They were offered their lives if they would attend the services of the English Church. On their refusal they were tied to two stakes on the banks of the Solway, and placed at the mercy of the waves. Margaret Maclachan, the elder woman, died first, showing, it is said, no sign of fear as the water drew near her, but praying and singing to the last. It was thought that her companion, a girl of eighteen, might yet give way; and many friends pressed round her saying, “Dear Margaret, only say God save the King.”

"May God save him if it is God's will," she replied. They asked her if she would give up the Covenant. "Never," she returned; "I am Christ's; let me go." These were her last words as the waves closed over her.

When Parliament met on May 22nd, 1685, James had little cause to complain of its behaviour towards him, for it granted to him for life an annual sum of £200,000, and its loyalty was further aroused by two rebellions which took place. One was in Scotland, led by the Duke of Argyle, the other in the West of England, headed by the Duke of Monmouth, whom the Whigs in the last reign had wished to make heir to the throne.

Risings in
Scotland and
the West of
England.
1685.

Argyle had been most unjustly sentenced to death in the last reign, and both he and Monmouth had been forced to take refuge in Holland. Here they had been living for some time in exile, and, misled by the words of some of their friends, they fancied that on the death of Charles the English would be quite ready to rise against their Roman Catholic King. They were mistaken. Argyle's attempt proved an utter failure; his followers disputed among themselves, and his army was dispersed without a battle. Argyle himself was taken prisoner and beheaded June 30th.

Argyle in
Scotland.

Monmouth's prospects seemed at first a little brighter. Among the country people he was much loved, and many believed him to be the true heir to the throne. On his landing at Lyme on the 11th of June the farmers and tradesmen flocked to his standard, and as he entered the town of Taunton crowds of men and women eagerly bade him welcome, while every door was wreathed with flowers. A number of young girls came in a procession to meet him and present him with a Bible, and a flag on which was marked the royal arms.

Monmouth
in Dorset-
shire.

Thinking to attract to his side some of the nobility, Monmouth took the title of king; but all

wise men knew he was only a pretender, and stood aloof from him.

From Taunton Monmouth went to Bridgewater, but finding Bristol and Bath already fortified against him, he marched towards Wiltshire, hoping to find at Frome the arms and men which he sorely needed. This town also he found in the hands of men faithful to King James.

When Monmouth heard that the royal army was drawing near he lost heart, and made up his mind to return to Bridgewater. Here he was overtaken by the King's forces, and on July 6th was fought the battle of Sedgemoor. Monmouth's country followers had, of course, little chance of success when matched against regular troops, and although they fought very bravely for three hours they were completely beaten. Three thousand of them were slain, while only three hundred of the royal army lost their lives.

Monmouth was caught a few days after in the dress of a peasant, and was beheaded on Tower Hill, on the 15th of July, in the **1685.** midst of a crowd of people grieving bitterly for his death.

An army was left at Bridgewater under Colonel Kirke, who, with his soldiers, put to death numbers of prisoners taken in battle, while Judge "The Bloody Jeffreys was sent down to complete the **Assize.**" work of revenge. The cruel manner in **1685.** which he executed his commission has given to this circuit the name of the Bloody Assize. One lady, Alice Lisle, was beheaded simply because she gave shelter to a poor man flying for his life; and another woman, Elizabeth Grant, was for a similar action burnt alive.

Two young brothers, William and Benjamin Hewling, were condemned to be hanged. After the execution of William, who was only nineteen, their sister went herself to James to beg the life of her remaining brother. "I wish well to your suit," said Churchill, an officer of whom we shall hear more, "but do not flatter yourself with hopes. This marble,"

and as he spoke he laid his hand on the chimney-piece, "is not harder than the King's heart." Churchill proved correct, and Benjamin soon underwent the same fate as his brother.

The rebels who suffered death were less to be pitied than those sold as slaves to the West Indies. They were treated so badly that many died on their passage out. The money for which they were sold was shared by the King's greedy courtiers, and even the Queen and her ladies were not ashamed to have a share of it. Those who could afford to do so paid large sums to Jeffreys for their freedom. Money alone gained mercy either from him or the King his master.

James used the rebellion of Monmouth as an excuse for increasing the army, which gave rise to much discontent among his subjects, especially as he allowed Roman Catholics to serve in it without imposing any test on them. It must not be forgotten that the laws against the Roman Catholics were at this time extremely cruel, and for James to try to improve the condition of the members of his own faith was quite right and fair. But to give liberty to one class of persons while you take it away from another is most unjust, and this is what the King wished to do.

As the sovereigns of England held the title of Head of the Church, he determined to use for his own ends the power which he thought this title gave him. He therefore persuaded several of the judges to declare that any sovereign had in England the power of doing away with any of the laws against certain religions entirely on his own authority.

Then he at once gave some of the churches into the hands of Roman Catholics, and bestowed on men of his own faith various high offices of state. He also gave the Roman Catholics leave to worship in public, and allowed monks to walk without let or hindrance in the streets of London. At the same time he forbade any sermons to be preached against Romish doctrines.

The English clergy, who had been until this time faithful to King James, now defied him openly; and from nearly every pulpit sermons were heard directed expressly against the King's religion.

When he found he could not win the favour of the English clergymen, James began to court the Dissenters, and published what he called a "Declaration of Indulgence," in which all ^{Declaration of Indulgence.} the laws both against them and the Roman ^{1687.} Catholics were suspended.

The Dissenters soon saw that the freedom offered them by James was not worthy of the name, and all their leading men joined the Church clergy in protesting against the Declaration, which, as it had been issued without consent of Parliament, could not be law.

Nevertheless the King gave orders for a second Declaration of Indulgence to be read in all churches on the 20th of May, 1688. Many of the clergy refused, and seven of the bishops, ^{Trial of the seven bishops.} having signed a petition, went with it to James and besought him to excuse them ^{1688.} from reading this unlawful "declaration" aloud in church. The King was very much enraged. "This is a standard of rebellion!" he exclaimed when the paper was given into his hand. Although the bishops protested, he was not far wrong.

At first James thought of taking away their bishoprics, but at this proposal even Judge Jeffreys stood aghast, and told the King he had better have the bishops tried for libel. His advice was accepted by James, and a barge was prepared to take them down the river from Whitehall to the Tower. It was the close of a hot summer's day when this occurred, and as the barge passed slowly down the Thames, crowds of people assembled on the banks in great excitement. Some fell on their knees in prayer, and many waded through the mud until they were up to their waists in water, and begged for the blessing of the bishops.

A week later they were brought to trial; but as

their petition had been framed in the mildest language, a verdict of "Not Guilty" was returned. The bells of the City churches were at once set ringing, and everywhere the people gave way to expressions of delight.

The King had that morning visited the camp at Hounslow Heath, and when the news of the verdict was brought to him he exclaimed, "So much the worse for them!" The soldiers thought differently, for as soon as he quitted their presence they raised shouts of joy.

"What does that uproar mean?" asked James.

"Nothing," was the reply. "The soldiers are glad the bishops are acquitted."

"Do you call that nothing?" said the King. He knew it meant that the whole power of the nation was against him.

This occurred on June 30th, 1688. A fortnight before a little son had been born to James. The event had given great delight to the King, for as he intended that the young prince should be brought up in his own faith, he hoped that the work he was now doing with so much trouble would not be undone by a Protestant sovereign after he himself was dead.

This son was the child of his second wife, Mary of Modena, Anne Hyde having died some years before. Every one had until this time looked upon the daughters of the latter as the heirs to the throne, and the birth of this baby was therefore a great disappointment to all Protestants.

Men saw it was time to act; and on the very day when the Londoners were busy lighting bonfires and sending up fireworks in honour of the acquittal of the bishops, an invitation was sent to William of Orange from some of the leading nobles, begging him to come over to England and restore proper government.

William accepted it. He made swift and careful preparations, and on the 5th of November, 1688, he landed with an army at Torbay, in Devonshire. At first the gentry seemed slow to

Acquittal of
the bishops.
1688.

Birth of an
heir to the
Crown.
1688.

Invitation of
William of
Orange.
1688.

The
Revolution.

join him; but before long noted men from all parts flocked to his standard, and the whole country rose in his favour.

James was at first blind to his own situation, and refused the aid of the King of France, who warned him of the coming danger. When he did at last realise his position, he made up his mind to send the Queen and his little son out of the country as soon as possible.

The man on whom he chiefly relied was Lord Churchill, one of the leaders of the army. Churchill had, however, secretly promised to support William, and on the 24th of November went over to the Prince's camp. His example was followed by many officers, and at last the news was brought to James that both his daughter Anne and his daughter's husband, Prince George of Denmark, were among the deserters. "God help me!" cried the King; "my own children have forsaken me."

All those who still remained true to the King now begged him to call a Parliament. He consented, but only in the hopes of gaining time. As soon as he had finished his preparations, ^{Flight of James II.} 1688. and knew that his wife and son were out of the country, he also set out for France on the 11th of December.

When it was known in London that the country was left without a ruler great excitement was felt everywhere. Crowds of riotous men and boys flocked from all quarters. They lit huge bonfires, pulled down some of the Roman Catholic churches, and carried along the streets the pictures, images, and crosses found in them. Numbers of them held aloft swords with oranges stuck on the points.

Happily, to only one person did this mob offer violence. Judge Jeffreys was seen by a man he had bullied in his days of power hiding in an alehouse in Wapping. He was dressed as ^{End of Jeffreys.} a common sailor, and his face was black with coal-dust. The man called on the people around, and Jeffreys was instantly dragged forth. He would have been most certainly killed by them

had not rescue come. Terrified at the violence of the crowd, Jeffreys begged to be sent to prison, and was at length taken to the Tower. Here, in the course of a few months, he drank himself to death.

Meanwhile the King's escape had been prevented by some fishermen, who, fancying he was a Jesuit priest, had caused him to be brought back to London by a troop of lifeguards. The Prince of Orange was much troubled by this event, as many of the nobles, who when deserted by James were willing to declare in William's favour, drew back when they knew the King was again amongst them.

William therefore planned to alarm the King in order to make him run away again, and also to give him every opportunity to escape. This design succeeded, and James finally left England for France on the 23rd of December.

William now called a Parliament, January 22nd, 1689, to settle in what way the government should be carried on. It was called a Convention, because it could not be summoned in the regular way by royal writs. This Parliament at first proposed that Mary, the Princess of Orange, should reign instead of her father. To this, however, William would not agree, while Mary on her part declared she would never accept the crown unless her husband shared it with her.

It was therefore decided that William and Mary should be proclaimed jointly as King and Queen of England, and that if they should die and leave no children, the crown should descend to Mary's sister Anne.

Thus was accomplished, with scarcely any bloodshed, the Revolution of 1688.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What promises did James II. make on coming to the throne, and how did his first actions belie his words?—2. On whom did James wish to be revenged? Whom did he choose as his helper? What punishment was inflicted on Oates and Dangerfield?—3. How were the Covenanters in Scotland treated? Relate the story of Margaret Mac-lachan and Margaret Wilson.—4. What two rebellions took place at this time? Give an account of the rising led by the Duke of Monmouth. What was the fate of the leaders?—5. How were the rebels treated after the rising had been put down? Give some instances of the cruelty of Judge Jeffreys and the King.—6. For what new regulations did James use the rebellion of Monmouth as an excuse? How did he determine to use the power he thought he possessed as head of the Church of England?—7. What two parties did the "Declaration of Indulgence" favour? With whom did the Dissenters now join?—8. On what day was the Declaration ordered to be read? How did seven of the bishops act when this command was given? What answer did the King make to them?—9. For what were the bishops tried, and what verdict was returned? How did the nation show its joy at this event? Give the date of acquittal.—10. Why was the birth of a son to James looked upon as a misfortune by the nation? Whom did the nobles invite over to restore proper government? Give the date and name the place of his landing.—11. By whom was James deserted in his trouble, and how did he act?—12. What took place in London when it was known that the King had fled? How did Judge Jeffreys end his life?—13. When did the King's final flight take place? Why was the Parliament summoned on William's arrival called a Convention? Mention the date.—14. To what decision did this Parliament come?

PART IV.

FROM THE REVOLUTION TO THE PRESENT TIME.

1688-9-1880.

CHAPTER XLIV.

WILLIAM AND MARY. 1688-9-1694.

WILLIAM III. 1702.

WITH William and Mary we begin a new period of English history. When we commenced this story we explained that in earlier days our kings were chosen or elected by the people, and that down to the time of the Wars of the Roses this practice was continued in spirit if not in the letter. But the Tudors held that the crown ought to descend like private property in a direct line from father to son, and the Stuarts added the notion of divine right, which was explained in relating the reign of James I. This view of the hereditary and divine right of kings had gone far towards depriving the nation of its freedom, by making the sovereigns imagine themselves above all law. By the choice, however, of William and Mary the English went back to their old idea of kingship, and no one now can pretend to the crown of Great Britain except in accordance with the law of succession maintained by authority of Parliament.

New period
in the his-
tory of the
Constitution.

Parliament, when it offered the throne to William and Mary, had drawn up a Declaration of Rights, which was afterwards made law, and called the "Bill of Rights." This bill forbade ^{Bill of Rights.} all cruel and unusual punishments, such as ^{1689.} had been inflicted on many persons in the last King's reign, and declared it unlawful for sovereigns to tax their subjects or to maintain a standing army without the consent of the Commons. It also declared that in future no Roman Catholic should ever reign in England, and that if any King or Queen married one of that faith, their subjects would no longer be bound to obey them. In addition it maintained the right of Englishmen freely to choose representatives in Parliament, and for Parliament it claimed entire freedom of speech.

It was fortunate for the English people that the prince they had chosen as their King was a man of great wisdom and courage, for those by whom he was surrounded had been trained ^{Discontent of the Court.} in the bad court of Charles II., and even the best of them often showed great meanness of character. It was not long before they began to be discontented with William's government, and to annoy him, so that he almost wished he had never accepted the crown.

William had been early left an orphan, and from the time he was very young had lived in the midst of spies and enemies. He had thus been compelled when little more than a child ^{Character of William III.} to be constantly on his guard against those around him. He had in consequence learnt to put on a cold and distant manner in order to hide his real feelings. This was more noticed after he came to England on account of the difficulty he was under in speaking the English language.

William's health also was against him. The English kings had for years kept up a gay court in their palace at Whitehall, and the citizens of London were familiar with their faces. But William had never been strong; and the damp air of Westminster,

the fogs which rose from the river, and the bad smells in the streets, made him so ill that he was obliged to leave the city, and make a home for himself and Mary at Hampton Court.

This palace had been built by Cardinal Wolsey, and taken from him by Henry VIII. It had been a favourite residence of English sovereigns; but Charles II. and James II. had seldom cared to go thither, and it had now a dismal and deserted look. William and Mary set to work at its improvement. The gardens they planted were all laid out with formal walks and trees cut in stiff patterns, in imitation of William's old home in Holland.

The Londoners, however, missed the gaiety which the Court at Whitehall had given to the capital; and their complaints were told to William by one of his nobles.

"Do you wish," was the King's reply, "to see me dead?"

William could not always remain at Hampton Court, and he therefore bought a house at Kensington, to which he came to do business while Parliament was sitting. But Kensington, though now a part of London, was then considered quite a country place, and as the roads which led to it were muddy and difficult to travel, the King seemed almost as far away there as at Hampton Court.

Another complaint which the English made of their King was, that he cared more for his Dutch friends than for his English nobles. To the former it was known he could be friendly and easy in manner, while to the latter he was cold and stiff.

This was not unnatural. It was impossible that William should care for England so much as for the home in which he had been born and brought up. Besides, he knew the Dutch friends whom he kept near him to be men of rare devotion, while of the English nobles he could know very little, and few of them had any greatness of character.

Thus William, in spite of the delight with which

Hampton
Court.

The Dutch
at Court.

he had been hailed king, was by no means a popular man, and the difficulties with which he had to contend were very great.

William tried to divide his favours equally among men of all parties, and to establish just and tolerant laws both for Churchmen and Dissenters. He could not do so much as he wished, but The Toleration Act. 1689. a bill called the Toleration Act was passed, which allowed any man to become a Christian minister and preach if he took an oath of allegiance to the King, acknowledged him as supreme, and signed a declaration against the mass. This nearly all Dissenters were quite willing to do.

But with one party of men there arose a difficulty. These were the bishops and clergy, who had sworn to obey King James, and who thought it Nonjurors. not right to acknowledge another sovereign.

William would have been willing even for them to be let alone, but the Parliament considered it necessary for all who held livings to swear to obey the King. The result was that between three and four hundred clergymen, and five out of the seven bishops who had been tried for libel by James, gave up their offices. They were called the *Nonjurors*, that is, not-swearers, because they refused the oath of allegiance.

Meanwhile the Revolution in England had been followed by another in Scotland.

The Scotch had, in fact, been treated far worse by Charles and James Stuart than the English, and the people of the Lowlands, as soon as they heard that James had fled from England, The Revolution in Scotland. drove out their old rulers, pulled down the houses of the English clergy, and began to behave with much disorder.

William saw it was necessary to act with promptness, and therefore desired that a Scotch Parliament should assemble. It met, and at once offered the crown of Scotland to William and Mary, desiring at the same Establishment of the Scottish Kirk. 1689. time that they should respect the laws and put down the Church of England worship in Scotland.

William consented, and from that time the Presbyterian has been the national Church of Scotland.

In this country, as well as in England, William tried to obtain greater toleration for all religions than the people of that time were willing to give. Indeed, he always showed a great dislike to persecution. When he was crowned King of Scotland, and came to a sentence in the coronation service which required him to root out all heretics, he paused, and said distinctly, "I will not lay myself under any obligation to be a persecutor." "Neither the words of this oath nor the laws of Scotland lay any such obligation on your Majesty," was the reply. "In that sense I swear," said William, "and I desire you all, my lords and gentlemen, to witness that I do."

The Roman Catholics, however, were still forbidden by Acts of Parliament to have anything to do with the government of the country, and severe laws remained in force against them.

But although the Lowlands of Scotland had accepted the rule of William and Mary, a different state of things had arisen in the Highlands.

Resistance
of Highland
clans.

The people who lived among the northern mountains were at this time very wild and rough in their manners, and used to lead the most lawless lives. They were generally in a state of warfare among themselves, and often came down on the people of the Lowlands to steal their cattle or burn their houses. The Highlanders cared very little whether the government of Scotland was settled or unsettled; but they cared very much what chief was uppermost among their clans; and as they hated the House of Argyle, which was attached to William, they determined to remain true to James. Claverhouse, who had won the title of Viscount Dundee,

took the lead, and defeated William's soldiers at the battle of Killiecrankie, July 27th, 1689. The victory did not much benefit the cause of the Highlanders, for Dundee was slain in the battle, and as they were left

Battle of
Killie-
crankie.
1689.

without a leader, William's troops succeeded in getting the better of them, and built a fort called Fort William right in the heart of their country.

As the discontent of the Highlanders still continued, William decided, in 1691, to try further measures to pacify them, and offered a free pardon to all those who, before the 31st of December, would swear to obey him in future. Sir John Dalrymple, or the Master of Stair, as he was called, was sent by the King to see his desires enforced, and a worse man could not have been chosen for the enterprise.

The Master of Stair hated all the Highlanders, but more especially the tribe of the Macdonalds, who lived in the wild mountain pass of Glencoe; and he laid a plot to destroy them. Mac Ian, the chief of the Macdonalds, had delayed until the last moment to set out for Fort William, the place where the oaths to the King had to be taken, and did not reach it until the 31st of December had arrived. To his dismay he found that he was too late. He went at once to Inverary, hoping there to find a magistrate before whom he might swear to obey William. He succeeded, and the magistrate gave him a certificate, which was at once sent to Edinburgh. The Master of Stair was perfectly aware of the circumstances of Macdonald's case, but hid the matter from the King, and laid a paper before him which stated that this chief alone had refused to take the oath, and asking him to sign an order which ran thus: "As for Mac Ian of Glencoe, and that tribe, if they can be well distinguished from the other Highlanders, it will be proper for the vindication of public justice to extirpate that set of thieves."

William signed this paper, some think without carefully reading it, most probably without understanding what the Master of Stair meant by the word "extirpate," for, although the Highlanders were to him only a set of lawless robbers, it is scarcely probable that he wished them to be treacherously murdered; yet this was what the Master of Stair had planned.

With this intention Sir John Dalrymple sent a troop of soldiers to Glencoe, with orders that they were to stay with the Macdonalds and pretend to be very friendly towards them until the fit time to act arrived. "The blow," he said, "must be sudden and secret."

The men obeyed. A week was spent by them among the Highlanders of Glencoe. Then suddenly one winter night, February 13th, 1692, when it was believed that the Master of Stair had posted soldiers round the glen to prevent any of the Macdonalds escaping, they fell on them and slew them in the darkness. But the Master of Stair did not complete his work; for through some mistake the passes round Glencoe had not been stopped, so that many of the clan were able to escape. About twenty-six only, among whom was Mac Ian, the chief, lost their lives. The Master of Stair seems to have felt no remorse for his crime. "Can there be a more sacred duty," he said, "than to rid the country of thieving? The only thing I regret is that any got away."

In those days news was so slow in travelling from one place to another, that for some time few except those concerned in the affair knew of these murders; nor was it until years had passed that the whole deed was brought to light. Even then the Master of Stair was not tried for murder, but was simply dismissed from office by the King, a punishment far too slight for such an offence.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Explain how it is that with William and Mary we begin a new period of English history. To what idea did the English return by this choice?—2. Name the chief enactments of the Bill of Rights.—3. Describe the character of William III., and show why he was unpopular with his subjects.—4. Explain the Toleration Act. With what party of men did there arise a difficulty? Why were they called Nonjurors?—5. What stipulation did the Scotch make when they offered the crown to William and Mary?—6. How did William show his tolerance? Against what people did persecuting laws still remain in force?—7. Describe the state of the Scotch Highlanders at this time. Why did they refuse the rule of William?—8. Give an account of the massacre of Glencoe. What punishment was inflicted on the Master of Stair for this treacherous deed?

CHAPTER XLV.

WILLIAM AND MARY. 1688-9—1694.

WILLIAM III. 1702.

IT is time now to relate what was passing in Ireland at this period. Louis XIV., King of France, had offered James and his family a home in that country. He was not, however, contented to remain there quietly, as he knew that in Ireland many men still remained faithful to him, and he believed he could, with the help of the Irish, get back all his dominions. Louis, who had always been William's greatest enemy, was quite willing to help James in his design, and lent him a number of French troops, with which he landed at Cork on March 12th, 1689.

The Revolution in Ireland.

James II. in Ireland. 1689.

The Irish were attached to James not only on account of his being a Roman Catholic, but also because they hated the English, to whom a great part of the land belonged. These feelings had always been encouraged by James, who, even before the Revolution, had determined to make Ireland his home if he quarrelled with his English subjects.

Lord Tyrconnel, who had been placed at the head of the Irish Government in the last reign, had collected an army of fifty thousand Roman Catholics, and ordered all the Protestants to lay down their arms. This command caused the greatest misery, for the Irish army, badly paid and full of hatred towards the Protestants, robbed and plundered everywhere as they went, and destroyed a great deal of property. The English Protestants in great

numbers took refuge in the two fortified towns of Enniskillen and Londonderry, and withstood their enemies with great firmness and courage.

The siege of Londonderry lasted one hundred and five days. Though deserted by their leader, and brought to the greatest distress by hunger, the English held out bravely, and did not give in until, at the end of July, some ships in William's service forced their way up to the town and happily saved them.

Siege of
Londonderry.
1689.

This siege was followed by a battle at Newton Butler, in which William's troops were again successful. Still the war in Ireland continued. The rough country and the damp climate caused much sickness among the soldiers whom William sent to Ireland; and although Schomberg, his commander, was a brave and skilful general, he found himself forced to remain inactive for many months, and lost far more soldiers by disease than by battle.

At length, in the next year, 1690, William made up his mind to go himself to Ireland. He left the government of England in the hands of Mary and nine councillors, and set out with a feeling of relief.

William
in Ireland.
1690.

"But for one thing," he said to a friend, "I should enjoy the prospect of being on horseback and under canvas again. For I am sure that I am fitter to direct a campaign than to manage your Houses of Lords and Commons. But though I know I am in the path of duty, it is hard on my wife that her father and I must be opposed to each other in the field. God send that no harm may happen to him."

William landed at Carrickfergus June 14th, 1690, and marched southwards till he reached, on the 30th,

Battle of
the Boyne.
1690.

a rising ground on the banks of the river Boyne, not very far from Drogheda. Here James with his army was encamped, and when William looked down into the valley of the Boyne, and saw on the other side of the river thousands of French and Irish soldiers moving about among their tents, his spirits rose, and he exclaimed,

"I am glad to see you, gentlemen; if you escape me now the fault will be mine."

The following day, July 1st, 1690, the English army plunged into the Boyne, and sent the Irish foot flying in terror before them. William had been slightly wounded before the fight began, but this did not prevent him from leading his army. Holding his sword in his left hand (for the right was bandaged), he remained all through the day amidst the hottest part of the battle, until it was decided in his favour. James, on the other hand, fled as soon as he found himself defeated, and again took refuge in France.

The courage of William and the cowardice of James so much discouraged the Irish that Sarsfield, an Irish general, was driven to say, when the English accused his countrymen of want of bravery, "Change kings with us, and we will willingly try our luck with you again."

The Irish were, nevertheless, determined to carry on the war, even though deserted by their King. Commanded by Sarsfield, they defended Limerick bravely, until the sickness among his soldiers obliged William to return to ^{End of the war in Ireland.} England. John Churchill, who was now ^{1691.} Earl of Marlborough, took his place, and in five weeks conquered Cork and Kinsale and returned home.

The spirit of the Irish was now broken; but being revived by the arrival in Ireland of a French general, St. Ruth, who brought with him more arms and men, they prolonged the war for some time. But on July 12th, 1691, St. Ruth was beaten at Aghrim by Ginkel, the general to whom William had now given the command of his army, and he died of a wound he had received. This forced the Irish to make peace with William in October, and quite put an end to any hopes James might have of aid from that country.

The Irish were from this time completely crushed. Kept down by a series of the most severe laws, they became, as it was said, "hewers of wood and drawers of water" to their conquerors. William was not

able to check the revengeful spirit of the English, for he could not act without his Parliament. Still he granted pardons, and restored to many persons the lands which they had forfeited.

The return of William to England took place in September. 1690, and the next year he set out for his own land, where he was carrying on a war against Louis, King of France, whose ambition was to become the chief power in Europe.

To oppose France William had, in 1689, persuaded Spain, Denmark, and Sweden to join with him; and many battles were fought between them. In several William was defeated; but his courage and perseverance were so great that they made up for his want of success, and he was able to keep Louis at bay for some time.

At length, May 19th, 1692, the English won a great victory over the French at La Hogue. This saved England from invasion, and raised the fame of England as a great naval power higher than it had been for many years. But the victory at La Hogue was followed by another defeat at Landen, July 19th, 1693, and by the loss of an English fleet, which fell into the hands of the French while on its way to Smyrna.

Still, in spite of these successes, the King of France was growing weary of the war, for his money and men were almost exhausted, and his land, it was said, was "one vast hospital."

These constant wars also cost England a great deal of money, and led to the beginning of what is known as the National Debt and to the establishment of the Bank of England.

Before William's reign there were no safe banks. Men who had saved money did not know where to put it for security. Very often they kept thousands of pounds in their houses, and sometimes were cheated out of their savings by rogues who said they had found some wonderful scheme by which all who subscribed to them might make their fortunes.

War with
France.
1689—
1697.

The National
Debt and
the Bank of
England.
1694.

The Government, therefore, proposed to borrow money from any who chose to lend it, and pay a certain sum every year for the loan of it. Many were very glad to do this, as they knew it was safer to put their money into the hands of Government than to hoard it up in their own homes. The debt which the nation thus incurred has gone on increasing until our own times, and is called the National Debt. It was partly for the purpose of managing more easily the business of the National Debt that the Bank of England was established in 1694.

Meanwhile William's difficulties were increased by some who pretended to be his friends. Many were the plots formed against his life by the Jacobites, as the followers of James were called, but the most famous traitor of all was the Earl of Marlborough. Plots against the King.

Marlborough was a great general and a brave soldier, but his love of money was so strong that to gain it he sometimes stooped to very mean actions. His wife Sarah was a dear friend of the Princess Anne, and had a great influence over her. So intimate were the two ladies that they would not even call each other by their real names, but invented others. Anne always called Lady Marlborough Mrs. Freeman, while she in her turn styled Anne Mrs. Morley.

Through means of his wife, Marlborough was able to get from Anne large sums of money; and in 1691 he seems to have formed a plan for placing her on the throne instead of William, by first causing discontent against the King in the minds of the people, and then intriguing with James and Louis. Happily Bentinck, a friend of William, heard of Marlborough's scheme and told the King about it.

William could not after this allow Marlborough to lead his armies, and he was dismissed from his service, to the great anger of the Princess Anne. Her love for her friend still remained so unshaken that she even brought Lady Marlborough to the palace—a deed which so much vexed the Queen that a quarrel arose between the two sisters, and they parted never

to meet again. "Were I and my Lord Marlborough private persons," exclaimed the King, "the sword would have to settle the matter between us."

But a greater blow than any he had yet borne fell on William in December, 1694, in the loss of his

Death of

Mary II.

1694.

wife, whom he loved very fondly. Mary, although younger and stronger than her husband, was seized with small-pox, and died after a few days' illness. Her death caused great sorrow everywhere, and at first it seemed as if the King would not recover the shock. "I was the happiest man on earth," he said, "and I am the most miserable. She had no fault; nobody but myself could know her goodness." At the thought of his next campaign he wrote, "I feel myself to be no longer fit for military command; yet I will try to do my duty, and I hope God will help me."

William raised a beautiful and useful monument to the memory of his wife. After the battle of La

Greenwich
Hospital.

Hogue Mary had found it very difficult to provide shelter and good nursing for all the wounded sailors, and she had often expressed a wish to turn the palace of Greenwich into a home for seamen. Not much had yet been done towards executing this project; but now William determined that it should be completed without delay, and ordered a design for it to be made by Sir Christopher Wren. The hospital of Greenwich still stands a witness to the charity of Mary and the lasting affection of William.

The death of the Queen forced William to make peace with Anne; and from this time Marlborough ceased plotting against the King; for believing that William's life could not be a long one, he thought it best to wait for his death, when his ambition might be realised. After a time the King and Marlborough also were reconciled.

The next campaign of William against Louis was more successful than any of the former ones; and in 1697 William and his allies met the French at Ryswick, a village near the

Pence of
Ryswick.

1697.

Hague, and signed, on the 10th of September, a treaty, in which Louis promised no longer to support James in his claim to the throne of England. The treaty of Ryswick had not long been signed when another difficulty arose amongst the different powers in Europe.

The King of Spain had long been very ill, and it was known that he must soon die. He had no children, and it was therefore rather a difficult

question who should succeed to his throne. The Spanish succession. The three men who laid claim to it were—

1st. The eldest son of the King of France; 2nd, the Electoral Prince of Bavaria; and 3rd, the Emperor of Germany; all of whom were distantly related to the Spanish King.

To thoroughly understand this question you must look very attentively at the map of Europe, then you will see that the difficulty arose thus.

If either the French or the Germans got possession of Spain they would become such a strong nation that they might aim at conquering the other countries of Europe. William, seeing this great danger, was determined that the Spanish crown should be settled on the Prince of Bavaria. In 1698 an agreement was accordingly entered into with France to this effect; but the next year the young Prince of Bavaria died, and another treaty had to be made.

William, however, could not make so firm a stand against the King of France this time as he had done before; for the English Parliament was quite wanting in sympathy for the King, and had reduced the army to seven thousand men. They even compelled William, to his distress, to send away his Dutch guards, a troop of men to whom he was much attached, and who had come with him when he first landed in England. This at least shows how very different was the position of Parliament from that which it had held under the Tudors and Stuarts.

While things were in this state the King of Spain died and left his throne to the Duke of Anjou, grandson of the King of France. Louis, in spite of former

promises, accepted it for him. Still farther, on the death of James II., September 18th, 1701, Louis acknowledged his son, who is known by the name of the Old Pretender, as the rightful King of England.

This conduct of Louis led William to form another alliance against France, and roused Parliament to such a sense of the country's danger, that it gave William an army of forty thousand men for the war. The King being too ill to take the command himself, entrusted it to the Earl of Marlborough.

Indeed, though he struggled against his weakness, William knew that he could not live long. He might, perhaps, have lingered a year or two longer had he not met with an accident which caused his death. He was riding one day in his grounds at Hampton Court, when his horse stumbled on a molehill and threw him to the ground.

The King's collar-bone was broken in the fall, and although the injury was only a slight one he was unable to rally from it, and died March 8th, 1702.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. How did Louis XIV. help James in his attempt to recover his lost dominions? When and at what place in Ireland did the latter land? Why were the Irish attached to James?—2. Who was at the head of the Irish Government, and how did he act? In what towns did the English Protestants take refuge?—3. How long did the siege of Londonderry last? By what victory was it followed? What causes retarded the success of William's troops?—4. When did William himself set out for Ireland, and in whose hands did he leave the government of England during his absence?—5. Give a description of the battle of the Boyne, and name its date. Relate the further events of the Irish War. Why was William unable to check the revengeful spirit of the English against the Irish?—6. Against whom was William carrying on a war at this time? With what great Powers had he formed an alliance? Give the dates of the battles of La Hogue and Landen. What effect did the former produce?—7. Explain how these wars led to the beginning of the National Debt, and to the establishment of the Bank of England. Give the date of the latter event.—8. What plot did the Earl of Marlborough form against the King?—9. Give the date of Queen Mary's death. What useful monument was raised by William in memory of his wife? With whom did Mary's death force William to make peace?—10. To what agreement did the nations come at the treaty of Ryswick? Give its date.—11. Explain clearly the question of the Spanish Succession, showing by reference to the

map how the difficulty arose. On whom was it at first agreed that the Spanish crown should be settled? Give the date of this treaty. By what event was it rendered useless?—12. How was William prevented from making a firm stand against the King of France at this time? What do his difficulties show?—13. To whom did the King of Spain leave his throne? How did Louis act in the matter? By what action did he further offend William? What effect did the conduct of the former have on the behaviour of the English towards their King?—14. To whom did William entrust the command of his armies, and why? What accident caused his death? Mention the date of it.

CHAPTER XLVI.

QUEEN ANNE. 1702—1714.

ANNE, before she came to the throne, had nineteen children, but they all died while infants with the exception of the Duke of Gloucester, who lived until he was eleven years old. But in 1701 he also died, and this obliged the nation to settle who should succeed to the throne after Anne. It was decided that the granddaughter of James I., the Princess Sophia, Electress of Hanover, and her children, being Protestants, should be recognised as the heirs to the English throne. Anne became queen with very little opposition.

The family
of Queen
Anne.

She was all through her reign chiefly under the influence of her friends, for her own husband was a man of very little character. "I have tried Prince George sober and I have tried him drunk," said Charles II., "and I find nothing in him." He died in 1708.

Prince
George of
Denmark.

After William's death the Earl of Marlborough became the leader of the English nation. He owed his power to the friendship which existed between his wife and the Queen. For the sake of Lady Marlborough Anne had deserted her father, for her sake she had quarrelled with her sister and been dismissed by William from Court, and now for her sake she was willing to give the highest power in the State into the hands of the husband of her friend.

Marl-
borough.

In some ways Marlborough was well fitted for the task. He was brave, calm, and clear-sighted,

and so skilful a general that he was never once defeated in any battle, nor ever attempted to besiege a town which he could not take. His temper, too, was well under control; and his manners were so easy and gracious that he was able to make and keep peace with men on the most trying occasions.

In the war about to be waged on the question of the Spanish succession, the Dutch, the Danes, the Hanoverians, the Austrians, ^{Allies of England and} and the people of Wurtemberg were on ^{France.} the English side, while the French were ^{1702.} allied with Spain and Bavaria.

In his first campaign of 1702 Marlborough was prevented by the Dutch from carrying the war at once into Brabant, but he was able to take several French fortresses. For these successes he received from the Queen the title of Duke and a great increase of income.

It was not, however, until 1704 that he was able to carry out in full his designs, and to inflict a terrible defeat on the French near the ^{Battle of} village of Blenheim on the Danube. ^{Blenheim.} ^{1704.}

The battle took place on August 13th, close to a little stream, behind which lay the French and Bavarians. Both the opposing armies numbered about fifty thousand men. Marlborough ordered that the troops should begin the day with prayer, and was careful that hospitals should be prepared for the wounded. As he was able entirely to carry out his own ideas, he won a decided victory, and the French were more thoroughly beaten than they had been for years.

In England the news of the victory of Blenheim was heard with much joy, and on Marlborough's return home he was greeted with every honour, while the Queen gave him as a reward the royal manor of Woodstock, in Oxfordshire, and ordered a stately palace to be built there, which was to bear the name of Blenheim.

The year 1704 was also rendered famous by the

taking of Gibraltar by Admiral Rooke and Sir Cloudesley Shovel. It has remained in

Capture of English possession ever since. On May
Gibraltar. 1704. 23rd, 1706, Marlborough again beat the

French at Ramillies, a village in Brabant; and in 1708

Ramillies he won another victory at Oudenarde, in
1708. East Flanders. These defeats, combined

with other losses, at length induced Louis and his allies to offer very fair terms of peace.

1708. But neither Marlborough nor those who fought on his side would consent to end the war, unless the King of France promised to send his soldiers and compel his grandson to give up the crown of Spain.

"If I must wage war," was his reply, "I had rather wage it against my enemies than against my children." Nor did his own nation fail to rally round Louis; and in the battle of Mal-

Malplaquet. 1709. plaquet, which was fought near Mons, in France, 1709, although Marlborough was

once more the victor, the loss of his army was so great as to be, it was said, twice that of the defeated. This battle, in which so many of the English soldiers were slain, served more than anything else in England to bring about a desire for peace.

Indeed Marlborough, in spite of his success, had many enemies at home, and people were tired of the

Change of war. His wife, whose temper was very
feeling in violent, offended the Queen, and lost favour
England. at Court, while her place was taken by

another lady—Mrs. Masham—who was very gentle and calm, and who soon gained great influence over Anne. All Mrs. Masham's friends were Tories. Her cousin, Harley, Earl of Oxford, and St. John, who received afterwards the title of Lord Bolingbroke, were the Tory leaders.

The feeling of the nation was shown by a curious trial which took place in 1710.

Since the restoration of Charles II. the Church of England clergy had generally sympathized with the Stuarts, and some of them had maintained that no wickedness or tyranny on the part of a king could

excuse his subjects in rebelling against him. Among the clergymen who held these views was a certain Dr. Sacheverell. On the 5th of November, 1709, he preached a sermon in St. Paul's Cathedral, in which he spoke against the Revolution of 1688. For this action the Whigs caused Dr. Sacheverell to be tried for libel, and a wonderful excitement arose among the people. Nearly every one took the part of the accused, and in all the chief churches prayers were offered "for Dr. Sacheverell now under persecution." When the Queen went to see the trial crowds pressed round her chair, saying, "We hope your Majesty is for High Church and Dr. Sacheverell."

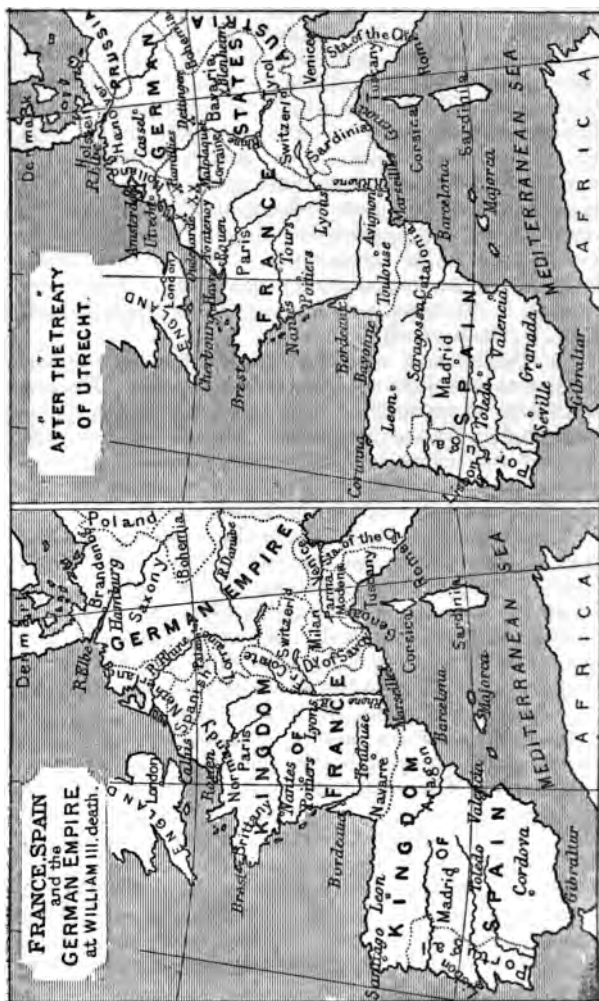
Dr. Sacheverell was found guilty, but his punishment was not then considered very severe. He was forbidden to preach for three years, and his sermons were burnt by the hangman. He was still allowed to read the service, and the people showed their sympathy for him by crowding to his church and bringing their babies to him to be baptized.

After this trial the Tories again came into power; they determined to put an end to the war. Marlborough was accused by them of getting money in a wrong way, found guilty, and obliged to leave England. When he was gone the Tories found no more difficulty in making peace, and in 1713 the English with their allies signed the treaty of Utrecht, by which England gained Nova Scotia and St. Christopher, and settled to keep Gibraltar and Minorca.

The French King also agreed to recognise Anne as the rightful Queen of Great Britain, to acknowledge the heirs of the House of Hanover as her successors, and to make the Pretender leave France.

The treaty left the Spanish throne to the French succession; but arranged that France and Spain should never be united. It also took away from Spain her lands in Italy and the Low Countries, to give them to the Emperor Charles.

The year following the conclusion of this treaty



Queen Anne died. Her health had for long been very bad, but her end was hastened by a quarrel between Harley and St. John, ^{Death of Queen Anne.} which took place in her presence. 1714.

St. John and his friends much wished to have the Stuarts again on the throne, and tried to persuade Anne to leave the crown to her brother. They were disappointed, for before her death she gave the Treasurer's staff to the Duke of Shrewsbury, one of the nobles who had invited over William III., telling him he was to use it for the good of the people. Anne died August 1st, 1714.

During Queen Anne's reign England and Scotland became one kingdom. Hitherto, though having the same King, each country had its own Parliament, and this had caused a ^{Union of England and Scotland.} good deal of difficulty in the government of 1707.

William III. had only a few days before his death begged the English to take the union of the two countries into consideration; and in 1707 England, Scotland, and Wales all became one kingdom, bearing the name of Great Britain. The Scotch from this time sent members to the English Parliament instead of having one of their own.

It was not only the victories of Marlborough which made the reign of Anne famous in his- ^{Literature.} tory. In her time arose a set of authors whose writings still give pleasure to many readers.

Most books written in the reigns of Charles II. and James II. were so coarse and wicked that few now care to look at them; but after the Revolution people began to wish for better things, and Joseph Addison did much towards improving the taste of the English in literature. He was the son of a country clergyman, had spent ten years at Oxford, and travelled in Italy before he settled down in this country. At thirty-three years of age he gained a post under Government for writing a poem about the battle of Blenheim. Addison, together with a friend named Richard Steele, began the fashion of magazine writing. The *Tatler* was the first little periodical that

was ever published. It was written in part by Steele, and in part by Addison, and was followed by the *Spectator*. These little papers used to come out every day, and were often very bright and amusing. Daniel Defoe, the author of "Robinson Crusoe," as well as of many other works, wrote during this reign. Other men of genius belonging to this time were Swift, who wrote "Gulliver's Travels," and Alexander Pope, one of the most brilliant wits and charming poets England has ever produced.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. On whom did the death of the Duke of Gloucester oblige the nation to settle the crown?—2. Who became the leader of the English nation at William's death? To what cause did he owe his power? Describe his character.—3. Name the different peoples with whom the English and French were separately allied—4. With what successes did Marlborough meet during his first campaign? What title did he receive from the Queen in consequence?—5. When and where was Marlborough's first great victory won? What royal manor did Anne give him as a reward? By what other success was this year rendered famous?—6. Mention Marlborough's further victories, giving the dates of each one.—7. What change of feeling had in he meantime taken place in England with regard to Marlborough? Name the lady who gained great influence over the Queen at this time. In favour of which party was her influence used?—8. Give an account of the trial of Dr. Sacheverell. How was he punished?—9. Which party now came into power, and of what was Marlborough accused? To what agreement did the French and English come at the Treaty of Utrecht? Give the date of this treaty.—10. To whom did Anne give on her death-bed the Treasurer's staff? When did she die?—11. What is meant by the Union of England and Scotland? What was its date?—12. Give some account of Addison and Steele? What fashion in literature did they begin? Name some other famous writers who lived during Queen Anne's reign.

CHAPTER XLVII.

HOUSE OF HANOVER, OR OF BRUNSWICK- LÜNEBERG.

GEORGE I. 1714—1727.

DURING the last days of her life Queen Anne's affections had been much drawn towards her own family; and could the Pretender have been persuaded to change his religion it can scarcely be doubted that his half-sister ^{The Stuart family.} and the Tory party would have brought him back to England to reign as King James III.

The Pretender, however, would not turn Protestant even for the sake of a throne; and as the death of the Queen came at last rather suddenly, the Jacobites were not prepared to act, and ^{Accession of George I.} George, the Elector of Hanover, great-grandson of James I., was proclaimed king without any opposition on the part of the people.

The King did not know a word of English, had never visited this country, and cared for it very little. Still he proved an honest and sensible ruler, although there was nothing about him to win either the affection or admiration of his subjects.

His family life did not do him much credit. His wife Sophia he left behind him in Germany, shut up in a gloomy castle, and he did not agree well with his eldest son, who was heir to the throne.

With George the Whigs, who were anxious for a Protestant succession and against the Pretender, again came into power; and they ^{The Whigs in power.} began at once to take steps against the Tory leaders. They accused Bolingbroke, Oxford, and

Ormond of having plotted to bring the Pretender back again to England. Bolingbroke and Ormond managed to escape to France; and Oxford, who remained at home, was imprisoned without being brought to trial for two years.

Marlborough returned once more; but he seems to have been distrusted by the new Government, and never regained his former power. He was struck down by illness in 1716, and although he lived until 1720, it was only as a mere wreck of his former self.

Death of
Marl-
borough.
1720.

During the first years of the reign of George I. the Whigs had much to contend against. Their severe treatment of the Tory lords roused the anger of many; for, although the Whigs had most power, the people generally, especially the clergymen and country gentlemen, hated the idea of having a stranger and German for their king, and would have gladly welcomed the Pretender had it been possible.

Popular
feeling
against the
Whigs.

Violent riots took place in many towns. A figure of William III. was burnt at Smithfield. Several dissenting chapels were pulled down, and at Oxford the meeting-house of the Quakers was destroyed. These disturbances gave rise to the passing of a new law, called the Riot Act, in 1714. It is still in force, and is read whenever there is a riot. By this act if more than ten persons assemble to disturb the peace, and refuse to disperse at the command of the magistrate, any one of them may be considered guilty of a crime and imprisoned.

The Riot
Act.
1714.

In 1715 a more serious rebellion for the restoration of the Stuarts broke out. It began in Scotland, where many people disliked the union of their country with England. The Highland clans, which had always clung to the old race of kings, joined the Earl of Mar, and raised the standard of the Pretender in the Highlands, September 6th, 1715. To them also flocked many of the north country Jacobites, while in the West of England another rising took place. The latter was

The
Pretender.
1715.

soon put down by the Government, which captured the leaders. The north countrymen were defeated at Preston, in Lancashire, November 13th, and fifteen thousand of them gave themselves up as prisoners. On the same day when the defeat at Preston took place, the Duke of Argyle, whose family were always on the Whig side, fought a battle with Mar at Sheriffmuir, in the south of Perthshire. As neither side gained a complete success the battle gave rise to the lines—

“There’s some say that we wan,
Some say that they wan,
Some say that nane wan at a’, man.”

The battle of Sheriffmuir gave, nevertheless, a check to Mar, and for some time he was obliged to remain quietly at Perth.

In January the Pretender himself arrived at Peterhead, and began to act as if he were already king. He even appointed a day on which he was to be crowned. Argyle at once marched to 1716. Perth, and although the Highlanders were quite ready to give battle to the King’s troops, Mar and James, as soon as they found themselves in real danger, withdrew with their army to Montrose, from whence they took ship secretly and sailed away in safety to France. When their leaders had fled the Jacobites had no further reason to fight. The rebellion came to an end, and it only remained for the leaders to be punished. Seven noblemen were taken prisoners and condemned to death, though all did not suffer. Everything, indeed, was done to save them, for there was a good deal of popular sentiment in their favour. Ladies brought petitions and laid them before the Parliament. The wives of the guilty noblemen besought the King’s pardon for their husbands, and many of the members of the House of Lords joined in the effort to save them.

In several cases the people gained their desires. Four of the seven condemned men were reprieved, but Derwentwater, Kenmure, and Nithsdale were

kept for execution. Nithsdale was rescued from death by his wife, who managed to get some woman's clothes into the Tower. In these he dressed himself and went out of prison, covering his face with a handkerchief, so that he might look as if he were crying. The guards who saw him depart in this trim imagined him to be a lady friend of the prisoner, who was in tears at the thought of his fate, and allowed him to pass without any hindrance.

Besides Derwentwater and Kenmure, about thirty other rebels, who were taken with arms in their hands, were executed.

This rebellion raised much alarm concerning the Jacobite party, and caused Government to pass an act called the Septennial Act, which still remains in force. In the early days of our history there was no fixed limit to the duration of Parliament; but in 1694, at the time of Queen Mary's death, William III. had given consent to an Act which made the period three years. According to this Act Parliament must have been dissolved at the close of 1717, and a new House of Commons elected in the spring. The Whigs foresaw that in the present state of the country disorder would probably ensue; and in order to guard against it, passed another act by which Parliament might last for a space of seven instead of three years. Although most of our Parliaments do not exist so long as this, there is nothing to prevent their doing so, if they carry out the wishes of the country.

The early Hanoverian kings were often absent from the country; and this caused the House of Commons to gain more influence, as Government fell chiefly into the hands of the King's ministers. This did good in the end, for Englishmen were far more likely to understand the wants of the nation than men born and brought up in a foreign land.

The King's or Queen's Prime or First Minister is now generally a member of the House of Commons, and he always takes the leading part in the Govern-

Septennial
Parliaments.

Growth of
ministerial
power.

ment. If anything goes wrong in the country the Prime Minister is blamed, not the Sovereign; and this, as we have before explained, is the reason why it is said that "the King can do no wrong." It is now considered that no monarch can really act contrary to the advice of his ministers.

Sir Robert Walpole was the leading man in Parliament during the latter part of this and the early years of the next reign. He came of a good family in Norfolk, and entered Parliament in 1700. He was a Whig throughout his life, and suffered imprisonment in Queen Anne's reign during the time when the Tories were in office.

Sir Robert
Walpole
Born 1676.
Died 1745.

When, on the accession of George I., the Whigs again became the leaders of the nation, Walpole rose to power; but it was not until 1720 that he became the King's first minister. From that year until 1742 he was the chief ruler in England.

Walpole was not what we should call a great man, although he did England good service. He had very little learning, his tastes were coarse, and he was fond of hunting and drinking. Still he was good-natured and merciful, and guided England through a very difficult period of her history. He loved peace, and did all he could to preserve it.

In 1720 Walpole was called to help England out of a great difficulty. It must be remembered that in the reign of William III. the number of wars in which England was then engaged obliged the Government to borrow money from the people, and led to the beginning of the National Debt, as well as to the establishment of the Bank of England. We have now become so used to having a National Debt that it does not trouble us much, but in those days it was so new a thing that every increase made in it caused the people to fancy that the country was on the way to ruin.

The South
Sea Bubble.
1720.

There was some reason for this fear, as the Government which had borrowed money in William's reign paid so large a sum, or, as we say, so high a rate

of interest, for the use of it, that the burden of it was growing very fast.

Some of the money also had been borrowed in the form of *annuities*. That is people had given a sum of money down in order that every year a certain income should be paid them, to cease on their death. This was one reason why it was found so hard speedily to lessen the National Debt. One way out of the difficulty seemed to have been found in what is known as the "South Sea scheme."

A number of men had formed themselves into a company for trading to the South Seas, and called it the South Sea Company. They asked Parliament to let them persuade those people who had given the Government money in exchange for annuities to accept their interest from the Company instead of from Government; or in other words to become shareholders of the Company instead of creditors of the Government. By creditors we understand persons to whom the Government owed money.

The Company, in consideration of its thus relieving the Government, asked that it might reserve to itself the whole of the South Sea trade. The consent of those persons who had bought the annuities had first to be asked; but as the Company held out great hopes of gain to all who took shares in the enterprise, they were easily persuaded to do so. Not only they but the greater part of the nation went mad on the subject, and crowds of people were to be seen going every day to the South Sea House. Sir Robert Walpole warned them that the dreams in which they were indulging were utterly false, but no one heeded his words, and the money-making mania increased.

Other companies were quickly formed, which promised to bring stores of wealth and treasure to all who took shares in them; and numbers of rogues and knaves got money out of foolish people by professing to be able to do the most impossible things. Companies were started for the fixing of quicksilver; for "the bringing over of donkeys from Spain;" and for "the carrying on of an under-

taking of great advantage, but no one to know what it is."

The South Sea Company saw the actions of its rivals with dismay, and as it knew that many of them had no right to exist, it began to prosecute them for breaking the law. The people were at once frightened, and withdrew their money; the rival companies were quickly ruined, and dragged down in their fall the South Sea Company. The South Sea scheme has on account of its rapid failure been since spoken of as the "South Sea Bubble."

Through it numbers of families lost all the money they possessed, and the distress everywhere was very great. The nation was brought so near to ruin by the failure of the South Sea scheme that Government was obliged to interfere, and for this purpose called in the aid of Sir Robert Walpole, who became the King's Prime Minister. He managed to get the country out of its difficulties by causing all the private property of the directors of the South Sea Company to be forfeited and given to those who had suffered by its fall.

In this same year, 1720, there was born to the Pretender a son, who received the name of Charles Edward, and was afterwards known as the Young Pretender. This event roused afresh the hopes of the Jacobite party, and Atterbury, Bishop of Rochester, was found, in 1722, to be engaged in a plot against the Government. His bishopric was taken from him in consequence, and he was forced to leave the country. Otherwise everything remained quiet under the peaceful rule of Sir Robert Walpole.

On the 10th of June, 1727, George I. died suddenly in his carriage while travelling to Osnabrück, in Germany, and his son George Augustus became King in his stead.

The Young
Pretender
born.
1720.

Death of
George I.
1727.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Who was the Pretender? What chiefly stood in the way of his succeeding to the English throne? Which party came into power on the accession of George I.? Against whom did this party at once take steps? What was the cause of the popular feeling towards the Whigs? —2. To what Act did the riots which took place give rise? —3. Give an account of the Rebellion which took place in 1715 in favour of the Stuarts. Give the date of the battle of Sheriffmuir. —4. Name the three noblemen condemned to death for taking part in this rebellion. How did one of them manage to escape? —5. Give a clear explanation of the Septennial Act, and show why it was passed at this time. —6. How did the frequent absence from England of the early Hanoverian kings benefit the nation? What was the character of Sir Robert Walpole? —7. How did the increase in the National Debt affect public feeling? —8. Explain what is meant by annuities. —9. For what purpose was the South Sea Company formed? What request did it make to Parliament, and how did it require to be recompensed for the trouble it proposed to take? —10. Describe the effect of the South Sea Scheme on the nation. What brought about the ruin of the South Sea Company? Mention the name since given to this scheme. Name the year in which these events happened. —11. What event occurred at this time to raise the hopes of the Jacobite party? Who was found to be engaged in a plot against the Government? —12. When, and at what place, did the death of the King occur?

CHAPTER XLVIII.

GEORGE II. 1727—1760.

IT was expected that when George II. came to the throne Walpole would cease to be Prime Minister, but this was not the case. Although, when the King had been Prince of Wales, they had not agreed very well, Walpole soon learnt to manage him, and George found it was to his interest to uphold his minister.

*Continuance
of Walpole's
influence.*

George II. was not, in his private life, a much better man than his father; but he seems to have been very fond of his wife, Queen Caroline, a handsome and clever woman, who had great influence over him, and who used it well.

There are few events to relate during the rule of Walpole; for he always tried to avoid subjects which might arouse the passions of the people. On the whole this was wise; for the land had lately passed through so many struggles that it needed rest, and during this time it began to grow rich and prosperous, and many improvements were made in manufactures, gardening, and farming.

The prisons were examined, almost for the first time, and many terrible things in them were brought to light. It was found that the prisoners were generally treated with great cruelty, that many of them died for want of air or a dreadful disease called jail fever. Something was done, though not much, to remedy this state of things; but for years our prisons remained a disgrace to the nation.

*Prison
abuses.*

Walpole also made an attempt to alter the taxa-

tion. At that time heavy taxes were laid on many articles imported from foreign countries. This raised the price of these articles, and led to a great deal of cheating; for people managed often to smuggle great quantities of them into the country free of duty. Quite a trade was, in fact, kept up by smuggling, and it was the cause of many crimes.

Attempt to
reform
taxation.
1733.

Walpole thought these evils might be met by allowing goods to be stored in bonded warehouses, and collecting the duty from the retail traders who bought them, instead of levying it at the seaports. This form of taxation was called Excise, and was already so unpopular, that when Walpole brought forward a bill for extending it in 1733 a great outcry was raised everywhere against the measure. Walpole, indeed, feared that if he carried out his plan there would be a rebellion, and so gave it up, saying "he would never enforce any tax on the nation at the price of blood." Since his time, however, almost everything that he proposed in regard to customs and taxation has been carried out.

But although Walpole's rule was on the whole a wise one, the faults of his character had a bad influence on the country in many ways.

Corruption
of Parlia-
ment.

He helped to encourage a practice, which had already begun, of getting seats for men in Parliament by paying money for them, and of carrying through measures by bribing the members to vote in the way Government desired. This method of bribery became at last so great an evil that it almost deprived the people of any share in government. It was at length put a stop to, as we shall read in a future chapter.

Walpole was very fond of power, and he showed so much jealousy of all talent that he disgusted most of the cleverer men of the day. Several of the Whig party banded themselves together "Patriots," under the name of "Patriots," and joined the Tories in opposing him. Among those who supported the Patriots was Frederic, Prince of Wales, who was

always on bad terms with his own family. The death of Queen Caroline (1737) also deprived Walpole of one of his best friends, and from about this period his power began to decline.

A quarrel had arisen with Spain from the following cause. English merchants had long carried on a trade with Spanish America, which, though not strictly lawful, had been connived at by the Spanish Government until a French prince ^{War with Spain.} 1739. ascended the throne of Spain. Then France, being on bad terms with England, determined to put down the trade. By the treaty of Utrecht, in Queen Anne's reign, it had been agreed that the English should have a share in the negro slave trade, but should only keep one ship in the Southern Seas.

The English traders never kept to this agreement; but when English ships and sailors were seized by the Spaniards and treated as pirates, loud complaints were made. In 1738 these complaints became louder than ever, for a merchant captain, named Jenkins, came home from the South Seas saying that he had been seized by the Spaniards, who had cruelly tortured him and cut off his ear, telling him to "take it to the King." "Then," said Jenkins, "I recommended my soul to God and my cause to my country."

Many sensible people seem to have thought that this story was invented in order to create a sensation. If so it had the effect intended. The King, who was always fond of fighting, sympathized with the nation in its clamours against Spain, and drove Walpole, much against his will, into declaring war. When the people, mad with joy at the idea, began to light bonfires and set the bells pealing, the Prime Minister said, "They are ringing their bells now, but they will soon be wringing their hands." Walpole proved correct in his forebodings.

The English gained little by the Spanish war, the chief success being the capture of Portobello by Admiral Vernon.

In 1741 they were drawn into another Continental war in which they were opposed to France. This was the war of the Austrian succession, and was undertaken to help Maria Theresa, the Empress of Austria.

War with
France.
1741.

The late Emperor, her father, had before his death begged his nobles and allies to support the claim of his daughter to the throne. France and Prussia denied her right to it, but the English nation took up her cause. In 1743 King George defeated the French army at Dettingen, himself joining bravely in the fight; but at Fontenoy, in 1745, the French won a victory.

English defeats abroad gave the Jacobites fresh courage, and induced Charles Edward, the grandson of James II., to try his fortune in this country. He landed in the Highlands of Scotland; and having gathered around him a small number of followers, he raised his standard on the 19th of August, 1745, in the valley of Glenfinnan.

The Young
Pretender.
1745.

At Edinburgh he was proclaimed king; and on September 21st won a decisive victory at Preston Pans over Sir John Cope, the commander of the Royalist troops. Charles Edward next turned towards London, and reached as far as Derby.

He had, however, counted on a rising of the north countrymen in his favour; but they had of late been growing prosperous under the peaceful rule of the House of Hanover; and although many of them still professed the old Jacobite faith, they did not care to risk life and property in a cause which was most likely to fail. The Prince, therefore, guided by the wishes of his officers, began to retreat towards Scotland, with the intention of securing that country, if possible, for himself. He then met the royal army again at Falkirk, and won another victory over them there. Meanwhile the King was absent from the country, while his son William, Duke of Cumberland, was in the South of England, where he was on the watch against a French invasion. Much enraged at

the news of this second defeat, the Duke determined himself to take the command of the royal troops. Accordingly he marched to Scotland, and having reconstructed the English army, he succeeded in completely overthrowing the forces of the Pretender at Culloden, April 16th, 1746. This ^{Battle of Culloden.} 1746. was the last battle fought on British soil.

Cumberland had saved the country, but he did not show much mercy in his victory. He punished the rebellion with great brutality, and he allowed his soldiers to commit such cruelties after the battle on the wounded and prisoners, that he won for himself the name of the Butcher.

About eighty persons were executed for taking part in this rising. Amongst them were the Lords Balmerino and Kilmarnock, who were executed on Tower Hill. Simon, Lord Lovatt, who had favoured the Pretender without taking any active part in the rebellion, was impeached, and condemned in the following year. He was executed in March, 1747, and was the last person in England to suffer death by the axe. Very severe laws were enacted against the Highlanders. They were forbidden to wear their native dress or to carry arms; and the power of the clans, which had of late years caused so much trouble, was completely broken up. The most effective instruments for introducing law and order were the roads which after this time were made, giving access to the remotest glens both to traders and the officers of justice.

For five months Charles Edward wandered about among the Highlands of Scotland, often escaping narrowly from the hands of the Royalists, but at length he managed to cross over to France.

In 1748 peace was made at Aix-la-Chapelle between that country and England; and as the French promised no longer to give the Pretender a home, he was driven from this shelter and obliged to wander from place to place. At length he fell into habits of drunkenness, and died without heirs in 1788. A younger brother of his became a cardinal in the

Roman Catholic Church, and lived until 1807. With this ecclesiastic the line of the Stuarts came to an end.

In the year 1751 an alteration was made in the Calendar, that is, the mode of measuring time. For many centuries the different nations of Europe had used the *Julian Calendar*, so named from Julius Cæsar, by whom it was introduced B.C. 46. According to this mode of reckoning the year was made eleven minutes and ten seconds longer than it really is; and in the course of centuries these minutes added together amounted to some days, so that in 1582 it was found there was a difference of ten days between the natural or solar year and the year as people reckoned it. For this reason Pope Gregory XIII. ordered that ten days should be left out of the Calendar, and it should be made to agree with the solar year. These regulations, called the *New Style*, were gradually adopted by most of the Continental nations. The English, however, still kept to the *Old Style* of measuring time, and this caused them great inconvenience, as they were now eleven days in the month behind most other countries. In England, also, the year began on the 25th of March instead of the 1st of January. At length it was determined by an Act of Parliament to omit eleven days from the month of September, 1752. The Calendar was thus made of the same length in England as it was in all other European nations, excepting Russia, which still reckons time by the *Old Style*. The alteration, however, was not made without some trouble. The greater number of the people were very ignorant, and were afraid of all changes except such as gave them more wages or cheaper food and drink. This change in particular made them uneasy, because it suddenly altered all their reckonings of time, and they even foolishly fancied that somehow it would rob them of eleven days out of their lives. The great painter, Hogarth, who loved to show in his pictures the sins and follies of his day, put into his painting of an election scene

a banner waved over the mob with the words, "Give us our eleven days!" in ridicule of the senseless cries that were sometimes raised.

During all these years the social life of the nation was at a very low ebb. Drunkenness, even among lords and ladies and members of Parliament, was very common. The working class followed their example, and seemed ^{Social manners.} to feel no shame in it.

The streets of London were very unsafe, and it was said that not only private lanes and passages were infested by thieves, but even public places were insecure from bands of men, who would commit the most daring robberies on passers-by. Highwaymen lurked in all the roads, while in the evening they often stopped the carriages of ladies and gentlemen to demand money from them under pain of violence.

Yet never were the laws more cruel against criminals than at this time. Batches of men and women were constantly hanged for stealing or forging, while whipping was quite a common punishment. Executions were always in public, and robbers were often hanged in chains, and their bodies left to dangle on the highway. After the rebellion in 1745-6 the heads of the rebels who were executed were placed on Temple Bar.

Gambling, too, was very common among the higher classes, and many persons wasted hours each day over cards and other games. Indeed, for a time it seemed as if the old English ideas of faith and honour were gone out of fashion.

The country was in this condition when the great religious movement called Methodism was begun. The leaders were two brothers named John and Charles Wesley, and a friend of theirs, ^{Religious revival.} George Whitfield. The religious life led by them when at Oxford caused them to be called in scorn Methodists, and this name is still borne by their followers. These three men devoted themselves to stirring up people's minds from the deadness into which they had fallen, and they went from place to

place, preaching in the open air, sometimes to the country folk, sometimes to colliers, and miners, and the roughest classes. Numbers flocked to hear their sermons, and were induced by their efforts to lead better lives. The clergy of the day showed great dislike to the Methodists, who were much laughed at and often roughly used. Still they were not discouraged, but rapidly increased in number.

After a time Whitfield and the Wesleys had a difference on certain points of doctrine, and separated from each other; but each continued to do good in his own way.

Although the Methodists had at first no intention of leaving the Church of England, they were united together in a society for mutual help. This society naturally grew into the body which now bears the name of Wesleyan Methodists.

In 1742 Walpole was forced to resign his place as Prime Minister, and in 1745 he died. The ministers

who succeeded him were not men of much ability; and for a time there was great depression felt everywhere. The peace lately made with France was soon broken by the behaviour of the French in North

America, where they were encroaching on British ground.

The new war began very badly for the English, as in 1756 the French succeeded in taking Minorca, while Admiral Byng, who had been sent out to prevent this disaster, feeling himself unequally matched, retreated before the enemy. For this action he was condemned to death, and shot in 1757.

The whole nation felt the shame of these defeats, and laid the blame on the weakness of the ministry.

The honour of England was saved by William Pitt, who had once formed one of the band of "Patriots" which opposed Walpole. Pitt was one of the most eloquent speakers ever known in Parliament, and he has been described thus: "His figure when he

Feebleness
of the
Government.
1742—
1757.

Renewal of
war with
France.

William
Pitt.
Born 1708.
Died 1778.

first appeared in Parliament was strikingly graceful and commanding, his features high and noble, his eye full of fire. His voice, even when it sank to a whisper, was heard to the remotest benches; and when he strained it to its full extent the sound rose like the swell of the organ of a great cathedral, shook the house with its peal, and was heard through lobbies and down staircases, to the Court of Requests and the precincts of Westminster Hall." "I want to call England," he exclaimed, "out of that enervate state in which twenty thousand men from France can shake her;" and as the Wesleys and Whitfield had roused men to think of religion, so Pitt awoke again the nation's sense of honour. "No man," it was said, "ever entered Mr. Pitt's closet who did not feel himself braver when he came out than when he went in."

The people of England loved and admired Pitt, and rejoiced when, in 1757, he was made Prime Minister. As for himself, he knew his own power. "I know," he said, "that I can save this country, and I know no other man can."

Pitt was not mistaken in his self-confidence. Under his rule the spirit of the people revived, the war was carried on with greater vigour, and soon the English were winning battles instead of sustaining defeats. "We are forced to ask each morning," said Sir Horace Walpole, "what victory there is, for fear of missing one."

The most important event was the capture of Quebec in 1759, whereby the English won Canada from the French. Quebec stands on the Heights of Abraham, at the mouth of the Capture of Quebec. river St. Lawrence. These rocks it was 1759. thought to be almost impossible to attack, and here Montcalm, the French commander, was encamped. At last Wolf, the English general, a young man whom Pitt had singled out for command because he saw he had great talent, determined to make the attempt. He succeeded, and Montcalm was defeated and slain. But in the very moment of victory Wolf fell mor-

tally wounded. "They run! I protest they run!" exclaimed an officer as Wolf lay dying. "Who run?" asked Wolf. "The French," was the reply. These were his last words, "I die content." Before the end of the year Canada had been conquered.

Besides the victories in Canada, the English had great successes in India, but the account of them we must defer until the next chapter.

George II. died suddenly October 25th, ^{Death of George II.} 1760; and as his eldest son, Frederic, ^{1780.}

Prince of Wales, had died in 1751, his grandson, George William Frederic, succeeded him, and reigned as George III.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. By whom was George II. much influenced? Show how Walpole's peaceful rule was a benefit to England. What terrible abuses were found in prisons about this time?—
2. Explain the attempt made by Walpole to alter the taxation. Why was he compelled to relinquish his plans?—
3. What bad practice did Walpole help to encourage? Who were the "Patriots"? Which member of the royal family gave them support? From about what date did Walpole's power begin to decline?—
4. Relate how Walpole was forced into a war with Spain. Name the chief success of the war.—
5. In whose aid was the war of the Austrian succession undertaken? Give the dates of the battles of Dettingen and Fontenoy, and say which side was successful in each.—
6. What national danger arose in 1745? Name the last battle fought on British soil. How many persons were executed for taking part in this rebellion? Who was the last person who suffered death by the axe in England?—
7. What was the most effective instrument for introducing law and order in the Highlands? What became of Charles Edward, and with whom did the line of the Stuarts come to an end?—
8. Explain the reform made in the Calendar. In what year did it take effect? What was the state of society in England during this reign?—
10. Mention the great religious movement begun in the eighteenth century. Who were the leaders of it? Into what body did the society begun by them grow?—
11. Give the dates of Walpole's resignation and death. With what country was war again begun? What disasters attended the English arms? Relate the fate of Admiral Byng.—
12. Describe the character of William Pitt.—
13. What important place was captured by the English in 1759? Name the commander of this action. What country was conquered before the end of this year?—
14. When did George II. die, and by whom was he succeeded?

CHAPTER XLIX.

GEORGE III. 1760—1820.

GEORGE III. was twenty-two years old when he came to the throne. He had been trained by his mother, a woman who had very high notions of the power held by kings. Education of George III.
"George, be a king," she was always saying to him; and a king, not only in name but in influence, he resolved to be. Unlike the two last sovereigns, he prided himself on being thoroughly English, and when he first spoke in Parliament he exclaimed, "Born and educated in this country, I glory in the name of Briton!"

This made him much more popular than the other Georges, and he won to his side many of those persons who had always clung to the exiled House of Stuart.

Unfortunately, George was in some ways not well fitted for holding high power. He was certainly sober, religious, brave, and well-principled, but he had a narrow mind, had been badly educated, and was both dull and obstinate.

In 1761 George married the Princess Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. But although he and his wife appear to have been very fond of each other, he was chiefly influenced, during the first years of his reign, by his mother and her favourite, Lord Bute. Before very long the behaviour of the Whigs, joined with disagreements amongst themselves, broke down the power this party had so long held, and drove Pitt from office. Resignation of Pitt. 1761.

Many of the Whigs had been rather alarmed at

the vast sums of money expended during the late war; and when, on account of news he had received concerning another family compact between France and Spain, Pitt proposed to declare war against the latter country and seize one of her great treasure fleets, his companions thought he was going too far. George was determined to make peace, and Pitt therefore resigned office in October, 1761. Lord Bute became Prime Minister in his stead, and made a treaty with France restoring to her most of the West Indian conquests obtained by British victories, but keeping Canada and Nova Scotia.

Before very long Bute gave up his post, and was succeeded by George Grenville, a firm but narrow-minded man, who both worried the King and enraged the people.

The greatest mistake of Grenville's Government was its treatment of our American colonies.

The American colonies. the Atlantic there had been growing up, ever since the time of James I., in the great country of America, thirteen English colonies. They had been colonised at different times, and there were few points on which they agreed. There were often disputes among them about their boundaries, and they were unlike both in faith and character.

The Northern States were peopled by a race of farmers who were descended from the old Pilgrim Fathers, and still clung to the Puritan faith; while the Southern were generally inhabited by slave-owners, whose religion was that of the Church of England. Still the government of all greatly resembled that at home, and they were alike firmly attached to their mother country.

George III. and his ministers were the means of binding these States firmly together, in opposition to the Home Government, and of bringing on the War of Independence, which separated the colonies from this country.

England had hitherto considered these colonies as existing specially for her benefit, and had by

different laws forbidden them to buy from any other country anything manufactured here. This weighed rather heavily on the Americans, who often, in consequence, owed money to England. In order to be better able to pay their debts, they used to carry on a sort of free trade with Spain.

Grenville, who was Prime Minister, said this was smuggling; and to prevent it sent over a number of Custom House vessels. At the same time he raised the duties on goods arriving at the colonial ports. These measures at once put a stop to the trade between America and Spain, and cut off one great source of money from the colonies at the very period when more was required of them.

This was followed by the passing of the Stamp Act. According to this, all documents of a certain kind used in the colonies would require stamps sold only by the English Government. There was a novelty in this proposal, because hitherto the Home Government had never claimed to raise any money *within* the States, but only at the outports on goods brought in. As it was proposed in 1764, but not made law until 1765, the colonies had a whole year in which to discuss it and grow discontented. By the end of this time all the States were on the point of rebelling, for the colonies declared that as they sent no members of Parliament to the English House of Commons, that assembly had no right to tax them without their consent.

Nearly all this time Pitt had been ill and unable to attend Parliament; but in the great danger caused by the Stamp Act he came again to the front, and, though he did not become at this time Prime Minister, he went down to the House, and there boldly took the side of the colonies in the quarrel.

"This kingdom," he exclaimed, "has no right to lay a tax on the colonies. America is obstinate, America is almost in open rebellion. Sirs, I rejoice that America has resisted. Three millions of people

so dead to all the feelings of liberty as willingly to submit to be slaves would have been fit instruments to make slaves of the rest."

Recall of
Pitt.
1766.

These bold words had some effect. The Stamp Act was repealed, and Pitt recalled to office.

Unhappily, as his health had for long been failing, he felt he could not attend to business as in former days ; so when a seat was offered him in the House of Lords, with the title of the Earl of Chatham, he accepted it. But, before long, illness prevented him from taking an active part in anything. Although he was still Prime Minister he remained for nearly two years in his own home, and never came to Parliament.

At length he so far recovered that he was able to come back to his place in the House of Lords. But in his absence many things had been done of which he strongly disapproved. In 1767 another tax on tea, glass, and paper, levied on the American colonies,

Seizure of
tea in Boston
Harbour.

1773.

had roused anew their anger. Although after a time the tax was taken off glass and paper, that on tea was continued, so that the colonists remained as discontented as ever. At length the crisis came. In 1773 some English tea-ships entered Boston Harbour, and a party of men dressed as Indians boarded the vessels and threw the chests of tea into the water. As soon as this act was known in England, the Government ordered that Boston Harbour should be closed against all commerce, a measure which could not fail to ruin the trade of that town ; while from Massachusetts were taken all the liberties it had enjoyed since first founded as an English colony.

The colonists then determined on war, and the first battle was fought April 18th, 1775, at Lexington. Until now George III. and the English people had fancied they could soon crush the Americans. Pitt thought otherwise, and he begged his countrymen yet to forbear and give the colonists what they wanted. However, the English were mad for war.

War of Inde-
pendence
1775—
1781.

The Americans soon proved that they were not cowards; and, led by General Washington, a man of great patience and courage, they continued the struggle so bravely that they at length wore out the royal forces. On the 4th of July, 1776, they declared "that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States." This was called the "Declaration of Independence."

In 1777 Burgoyne, the English general, suffered a complete defeat at Saratoga, which led to an alliance between France and America.

Chatham now proposed that England should unite with America, allowing her in future to govern herself in her own fashion, though still owning allegiance to our sovereigns. But this, like his other proposals, was rejected.

The prospect of losing the colonies seemed to Chatham, who had once saved his country from disgrace, a terrible outlook; and though he was very ill he came down to the ^{Death of Chatham.} 1778. House of Lords to protest against submission to such a loss. He entered the House leaning on his son and son-in-law, and took his seat. Everyone listened intently. "As long," he said, "as I can crawl down to this House, and have strength to raise myself on my crutches, or lift my hand, I will vote against giving up the dependency of America on the sovereignty of Great Britain. His Majesty succeeded to an empire as great in extent as its reputation was unsullied. Seventeen years ago this people was a terror to the world." These were his last words, for as he spoke he fell back fainting, and was carried out of the House. He only lived for a short time afterwards, and he died May 11th, 1778.

In 1779 Spain joined with France and America against England, and in 1781 Holland also was amongst her enemies. It was impossible to fight alone against so many allies; and when, in the same year, the Earl of Cornwallis was obliged to surrender Yorktown ^{Recognition of the United States.} 1781. to the French and Americans, George III. saw how

useless it was to hold out longer, and agreed to recognise the independence of the American States. From that day to this they have been a Republic, and have had no connection except that of trade and friendship with this country. But in place of three millions the population of the States has now grown to fifty millions, and it has become clear that the continuance of the connection so much desired by Chatham was in the nature of things impossible.

While England had been losing lands in one part of the world, she had been winning them in another.

East India Company. The East India Company had been founded in 1600 for the purpose of carrying on a trade in the East. Its chief factories were at first at Surat, near Bombay; but in 1640 the Company was allowed to buy some land in the Carnatic, and on it was built Madras.

The marriage of Charles II. with Catherine of Braganza gave, in 1666, the town and island of Bombay to the English; and in 1698 the East India Company founded the town of Calcutta. The Indian possessions of England had thus grown to some importance, and persons who had shares in the East India Company often made large fortunes.

Meanwhile the Indian people, although possessing an ancient civilisation, were very badly governed. The highest ruler in the land was called the Great Mogul, and had a palace and court at Delhi; but the different provinces were governed by Nabobs, all of whom had a great deal of power. The Nabobs often quarrelled among themselves, and the country therefore was in a state somewhat similar to England in the time of Stephen, when the King was weak and the nobles lawless and unruly.

About the year 1744 the English found in India rivals in the French, as they also had gained possessions there. General Dupleix, who was at the head of the French settlements at Pondicherry, formed the idea of gaining for France this great empire.

Taking advantage of the quarrels between the

native princes, Dupleix plotted and fought, until the French Company became the highest power in India. The English influence was chiefly saved by a young man whose name was Robert Clive.

Robert
Clive.
Born 1725.
Died 1774.

Clive when a lad had been sent out to India in the service of the Company. He was not trained for war, but in 1744 he took up arms against the French. In 1748, by his surprise and capture of Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, and other victories, he broke the spell which France had long held over the minds of the natives, and raised the English Company again to power. In 1753 Clive came to England, remained here two years, and returned to Madras in June, 1756.

On the very day of his arrival a horrible deed was done by Surajah Dowlah, the Nabob of Bengal. Surajah Dowlah, who was not then twenty years old, had lately come to the throne, and as he believed the English to be very rich, he was anxious to get some plunder from them. Having found some excuse, he marched towards Calcutta, seized the English garrison at Fort William, and took many of the settlers prisoners. One hundred and forty-nine men and women were put by his orders into a cell only twenty feet square, since called the Black Hole of Calcutta. So closely were they packed together, that only twenty-three lived until the morning. All the rest died from want of air.

The Black
Hole of
Calcutta.
1756.

At the news of this crime Clive sailed with an army to Bengal, and on June 23rd, 1759, he won a great victory over Surajah Dowlah on the plain of Plassy. From this time the English became the real rulers of Bengal, while a victory gained over the French at Wandewash in 1760 made them masters of Southern India.

Plassy.
1759.

Wandewash.
1760.

But the East India Company did not rule well over its new possessions; for every member of it, Clive not excepted, enriched himself at the expense of the

natives. On this account Parliament was obliged to look into the affairs of India, and some of Clive's actions were much blamed, although he was at the same time praised for the great services he had done his country. In 1773 it was arranged that the English possessions in India should be ruled by a Governor-General.

Clive died by his own hand in 1774, and in the same year Warren Hastings, who was quite his equal in skill and courage, became the first Governor-General. The Government he established was far better than that which preceded it, and he carried on some successful wars with surrounding peoples. For the sake, however, of gaining money for his work of conquest and government, Hastings stooped to some most mean actions, for which, after his return to England, he was tried by the House of Lords. His trial lasted seven years, and although he was in the end acquitted, he found himself after all his labour almost a ruined man.

His last years were spent at a country house at Daylesford, his native place. This house had once belonged to his family, but had been lost to them through money difficulties caused by the civil wars. When only a child of eight years old Hastings had formed the idea of himself some day getting back the estate. He succeeded, and in doing so won a great name in the history of our country. From that date to this the Indian empire has been continually enlarged, until now it is reckoned that there are in it upwards of two hundred millions, of various races, who are subject to the British Government, and dependent on this country for guidance and justice.

Meanwhile new lands were discovered, destined in time to grow into flourishing British colonies. In 1768 the Royal Society gave to Captain James Cook the command of an expedition of discovery to the Pacific Ocean. During this voyage he visited New Zealand; and, sailing

Warren
Hastings.
Born 1733.
Died 1818.

New Zealand
and Aus-
tralia.

eastward, reached New Holland, April 19, 1770. This land is now called Australia. Of this country he took possession in the name of the British Government, and called the district where he landed "New South Wales." It was afterwards colonised by Englishmen, and for many years convicts undergoing long sentences were sent there as a punishment. During the present reign this practice has been discontinued, not only in Australia but in other English colonies as well.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Describe the character and education of George III. What Princess did he marry? By whom was he chiefly influenced during the early years of his reign?—2. Explain the causes which led to the resignation of William Pitt. Who succeeded him as Prime Minister? What treaty was made with France while the latter was in office? Name the next Prime Minister.—3. How many American colonies were there? On what points did the Northern and Southern States differ? What effect did the conduct of George III. and his Ministers have on these States?—4. Explain the measures of taxation which caused offence to the Americans.—5. Describe the behaviour of William Pitt on this occasion. When was he recalled to office? What title was bestowed on him?—6. Mention the further taxes laid on the colonies during Pitt's enforced absence from Parliament. How did the English Government act when they heard of the seizure of tea-ships in Boston harbour?—7. When and where was the first battle fought? Who commanded the American army? Give the date of the Declaration of Independence.—8. What was the proposal of the Earl of Chatham with regard to the American colonies? Give an

account of his last appearance in the House of Lords.—9. Relate the further events which induced George III. to recognise the independence of the States.—10. When and for what purpose had the East India Company been founded? Where were its chief factories? Relate how other places in India came into its hands.—11. Describe the state of the Indian people at this time.—12. In whom did the English in India find rivals? What plan was formed by Dupleix? By whom and in what way was the English power saved in that country?—13. What horrible deed was done in Calcutta 1756? By whose orders? Mention the two great battles which made the English masters of Bengal and Southern India. Give the dates.—14. What faults were found with the rule of the East India Company? To what decision did the Government come with regard to the English possessions in India?—15. When did Clive die? Who became the first Governor-General of India? Why was Warren Hastings tried by the House of Lords? How many persons belonging to the Indian Empire are now reckoned as subjects of the British Government?

CHAPTER I.

GEORGE III. (*continued*). 1760—1820.

WHILE England was losing lands in one part of the world and winning them in another, the people at home were not idle. By various great inventions in machinery, cotton, woollen, and other materials could be worked up in far greater quantities. As a result of these improvements, our great towns of Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, and Sheffield, which had before been of very little importance, began to grow into large cities with many thousands of inhabitants.

**Growth of manu-
factures.** This increase in manufacturing soon showed the necessity for an improvement in the roads. **Roads and
canals.** Until this time they had been so bad that carts and waggons were often overturned in the mud, and thus prevented from continuing their journey. Now, not only were splendid roads begun all over the country, but, in 1761, James Brindley, an engineer, made a canal between Liverpool and Manchester, and as this canal proved a great success, and was found very convenient for carrying goods, others were made, and this mode of carriage still further increased inland trade.

Discoveries were also made in mining, and new uses found for coal, while the steam-engine was so much improved by James Watt that he is often regarded as its inventor. Large tracts of land also, which had hitherto lain idle, were enclosed, and so well tilled that where before there had been only fens and moors, arose fields for wheat and green pastures for cattle.

Machinery.

Yet there was still much ignorance everywhere, and this was shown in 1780 by the outbreak of the Gordon riots. Parliament was at this time anxious to do away with some of the worst laws against the Roman Catholics; but many people were so much afraid of a restoration of Papal power in England that their fears prevented them from being fair or just towards the people whom they dreaded. Lord George Gordon, a man who seems to have had rather a weak mind, took the lead in the outcry raised against the relief of Romanists. He promised to present a petition to Parliament against the measure if twenty thousand persons would meet him at St. George's Fields and go with him to Westminster. His proposal was answered by the appearance of sixty thousand rioters, who all wore blue cockades, and shouted "No Popery."

The Gordon
Riots.
1780.

These rioters, led by Lord George, marched in three bodies across the Thames, and assembled outside the Houses of Parliament. Here they attacked and ill-used all the lords they did not favour, broke into the lobby, forced their way up to the door of the House of Commons, and tried to frighten the members into granting their petition.

Failing in their efforts, the rioters marched away again, and for four days continued to riot without interruption. During that period they destroyed several Roman Catholic chapels, broke into Newgate, set the prisoners free, and threatened the Bank of England. The citizens seemed in the meantime too much alarmed to act. At last the King, who had a very brave spirit, took matters into his own hands, and ordered that the soldiers should be called out. This had the desired effect; the mob was crushed the same night; but it is said that five hundred persons were killed in the streets. Many more were hanged afterwards, while Lord George Gordon was tried as a traitor. Of treason he was acquitted, but he died some years after of jail fever in Newgate, where he had been imprisoned on some other charge. Strangely

enough he had changed his religion and become a Jew.

Far more terrible disturbances were soon to occur in France. Although to outward appearance that country looked rich and powerful, it was in reality in a very bad state. For this there were many causes. In the first place, the royal power in France had managed to absorb all authority. When, in the course of time, the King got possession of the great fiefs, there was no power like our House of Commons strong enough to hold him in check. He became an actual despot; and having no fear of any rivals amongst the nobles, he favoured their retention of privileges which were very unjust to the common people. The condition of the masses was at length so wretched that it resulted in the French Revolution. All the upper classes were free from taxes, and this made the burden weigh heavier on the poor. In order that none of them might escape payment, taxes were laid on all those things which are necessary to life, such as bread, meat, and salt. There were also many burdens laid on the peasants by their lords, for whom they were compelled to work as for their feudal superiors, whenever called upon. The lords, meanwhile, seldom lived on their estates, and it sometimes happened that a peasant never saw his lord, perhaps did not even know his name. Altogether the French peasantry were in great distress, and at last found their lives unbearable.

In 1774 a new King, Louis XVI., had come to the throne of France. His intentions were good, but he could not stop the storm which was coming; while his wife, Marie Antoinette, an Austrian princess, had the misfortune to excite great dislike amongst the people.

In 1789 Louis called together the *States-General*, composed of representatives elected by the clergy, the nobles, and the common people. But as they had not assembled for one hundred and seventy-seven years, no one seemed to know exactly what to

do. It was thought by the working classes that the King and the nobles wished to exclude their representatives from taking any fair share in the Government, and the idea filled them with anger.

Amidst the uneasiness occasioned by disputes over this question, it was reported in Paris that foreign soldiers were being collected to overpower the people. There was at that time in the eastern part of Paris an old fortress called ^{Fall of the Bastille.} 1789.

the Bastille,* in which state prisoners used to be kept. Some of the excited people now thought they observed that the guns of this fortress were being pointed so as to sweep the streets of the capital. A terrible riot was the result. The Governor of the Bastille surrendered to the rioters on condition that he and his soldiers should be spared; but in the confusion both he and most of the little garrison were murdered. This took place on July 15th, 1789, and the event proved a signal for the entire downfall of the old system of government in France.

The mob of Paris next went to the palace of the King and Queen at Versailles, and carried the royal family to the capital. This was followed by risings of the peasantry all over the country. Many of the old castles were destroyed, while many nobles fled to England and other countries, and began to form plans for rescuing the French King and putting down the revolt by force.

When the French people knew this their anger increased, and in 1792 they went to the Palace of the Tuileries in Paris, slew the guards, threw the King and his family into prison, and massacred without pity all the nobles they could lay their hands on. Three violent men, Robespierre, Danton, and Marat, then got all the power into their own hands, and determined to destroy, if possible, all the upper classes. A machine for cutting off the head in one moment,

Violence of
the Revo-
lutionists.
1790—
1794.

* The word means simply a building, and was applied to other fortresses as well. But the Paris Bastille was the best known.

called the Guillotine, had recently been invented. It was now set up in the midst of Paris, and many persons were dragged to it every day in carts to be beheaded. The King and Queen were executed in 1793, and it has been said that between 1790 and 1794 eighteen thousand persons were guillotined.

These events had a great effect on the people of England. At first many thought the French Revolution a good thing. But when the news came of the violent deeds of the mob in Paris great horror was felt everywhere.

There were at this time many eminent English statesmen, but the most famous were Pitt, Fox, and Burke. Pitt was the son of the Earl of Chatham, and had become Prime Minister when only twenty-five. Until this time he had been on good terms with France, and had no wish to interfere in her concerns. Fox always opposed Pitt, and being an attractive man

had a large party on his side. He was also a great favourite with George, the Prince of Wales. On this account he was disliked by the King, who thought that he led his son into mischief. Burke was an eloquent speaker and writer, but he does not seem to have been much liked by the other members of Parliament. He used, indeed, to get so engrossed in his own subject that men grew tired of listening to him, and he was called the "dinner bell," because, generally, when he got up to speak the members would, one by one, slip out from the House and go to dinner.

Until the outbreak of the French Revolution Burke and Fox had been very good friends; but this set them at variance, as they took opposite sides. Burke was horrified at everything done by the French, while Fox, on the other hand, believed good would come out of the evil. It thus happened that parties became much split up, but most persons who had any position or property agreed with Burke in looking with terror on the Revolution.

Effect on
opinion in
England.

William
Pitt.
Born 1759.
Died 1806.

Charles
James Fox.
Born 1749.
Died 1806.

Edmund
Burke.
Born 1728.
Died 1797.

There were nevertheless some people in this country who were in a discontented state of mind, and who formed societies in imitation of the French, and began to talk of Reform. ^{English Reformers.} By this word they meant chiefly such a change in the institutions of the country as would give the common people more direct power over the management of national affairs. This spread so much alarm everywhere that very strong measures were used to put them down. Men were imprisoned for a few rash words, and in Scotland a gentlemen named Muir was sentenced to be transported for fourteen years simply for trying to promote the cause of Reform in Parliament.

Happily this feeling of terror calmed down after a time, and in 1794 the acquittal of Thomas Hardy, John Horne Tooke, and John Thelwal, with some other prisoners who were accused of conspiring to bring about in England "the confusion which has so lately prevailed in France," proved that the English love of fair play was again showing itself.

There was in England no real cause for a violent revolution. Unfortunately the same could not be said for Ireland. Ever since the civil wars there, in the reign of William and Mary, the Irish ^{State of Ireland.} had been treated in a most cruel way. The effect of these and other wars had been to take the land away from the Irish race, and to give it to Protestant soldiers and their descendants. It must be remembered that there were far more Roman Catholics than Protestants in Ireland. The Irish had at that time a Parliament of their own ; but no Roman Catholic was permitted to enter it or to take any part in the Government. The Protestants, therefore, had it all their own way, and as they both feared and hated the opposite party, they did everything they could to oppress them and keep them down.

The Irish nobles, moreover, like the French, seldom lived on their estates, and knew nothing of the wants of their tenants ; while the "middlemen," who were employed to collect the rents, were often rough

and unkind to the poor. They were, indeed, so hated that they were often murdered.

Down to the year 1782 the Irish Parliament had no power to propose any new laws, but could only say "yes" or "no" to those brought forward by the English Government. But when the American colonies declared themselves free from British rule, the Irish wished to follow their example, and though it was impossible for them to succeed in this, they obliged the Government to give them more power to make their own laws without waiting upon the pleasure of the Privy Council in England. This did not make the Irish any happier, for their own nobles ruled very badly; and they could not feel themselves fairly dealt with so long as the persecuting laws against the Roman Catholics remained in force. All these

The Irish
Rebellion.
1798.

causes combined led to a terrible rebellion in Ireland. It was begun in May, 1798, by some discontented Protestants, who thought they would follow the example of the French, but it soon spread among the poor Irish Catholics, who had always many grievances.

The rebellion did not last long; the rebels were defeated on the 21st of June, in a fight at Vinegar Hill, near Enniskillen. The defeat was followed by a series of terrible cruelties committed on the Irish peasantry. One story alone will explain the state of things in Ireland at this time. Some men were out one night, and entered the cabin of a poor woman and her son. They seized the latter, declaring him to be a rebel. The lad besought them to spare his life, saying he was quite willing to go to a magistrate. They refused, and the mother then tried to part them, but in vain. They pushed her aside and shot the boy dead on the floor. These ruffians were taken up and tried for their crime, but acquitted of any wilful intention to murder.

Fortunately the English now sent out to Ireland Lord Cornwallis, a merciful man, who did all in his power to calm the people, and he in a measure succeeded.

In 1801 that country was united to England in the same way as Scotland had been in Anne's reign, and from henceforth there has been only one Parliament for Great Britain and Ireland.

Besides the effect produced internally both on England and France by the French Revolution, it also forced them into a war with each other.

During this war, in which France was fighting not only against England, but against ^{War with France. 1793-1814.} nearly all the other countries in Europe, arose the famous soldier Napoleon Buonaparte. He made himself master in France, and then took advantage of the passions excited by the Revolution to push that nation into schemes of conquest. Napoleon was not satisfied with being the master of France; he wanted to be lord of all Europe. At one time it appeared likely that he would obtain his desire. For he was a man of wonderful genius, and the French soldiers, who at first fought to protect their Revolution, afterwards thought for awhile that they were going to put down tyranny all over the earth. The real truth was that they had themselves become the slaves of a tyrant, whose ambition brought misery and distress on all the nations of Europe. At first the chief English victories were at sea, where Horatio Nelson and Admiral Earl Howe made their names famous as great commanders.

It was in 1798 that Napoleon made a warlike expedition to Egypt, with the idea of menacing India, and was defeated by Nelson in Aboukir Bay, in the battle of the Nile, fought ^{Battle of the Nile.} August 1st. During this fight Nelson 1798. was wounded in the head. When the doctor was about to leave one of his men to attend to him he said, "Not so; I will take my turn with my brave fellows."

The English nation was now mistress of the seas, and the ships of other countries were obliged to observe the rules laid down by British influence. From this cause disputes sometimes arose, and in 1800 Russia, Sweden, ^{Battle of Copenhagen. 1801.} and Denmark joined together to resist England.

Nelson sailed with Sir Hyde Parker, his superior officer, to take or destroy the Danish fleet at Copenhagen. But the British fleet was received with such a furious fire that Sir Hyde Parker gave the signal to withdraw. Now Nelson was blind of one eye through a wound received in battle; and when told of the signal he put up his glass to this blind eye to look for it. He then declared he saw no signal, and gave orders to close in with the enemy, and to nail the colours to the mast. The result was the surrender of the Danish fleet.

The English and their allies made peace with Napoleon at Amiens in 1802. This, however, only lasted for a few months, and hostilities were recommenced in 1803.

Napoleon, who was made Emperor of the French in 1804, was most anxious to invade England; but the victory of Trafalgar, gained by Nelson, October 21st, 1805, prevented his making the attempt. Before the battle Nelson had hoisted up as a signal to his men these words, "England expects that every man will do his duty." He fell himself in the fight, to the great grief of all, in the very moment of victory.

The year following Pitt and Fox died, worn out with the struggles of the time. They were both buried in Westminster Abbey, near each other. Pitt was laid by the side of the great Earl Chatham. "Where," it was said, "will you find such a father and such a son?" Burke, who was older than either, had died in 1797.

England was now the only country which held out against the power of Napoleon, and it was long before a general was found skilful enough to defeat his armies. But at length, in Sir Arthur Wellesley, third son of the Earl of Mornington, the much-needed commander appeared. The Spaniards, who had been hitherto compelled to side with the French, became enraged at an attempt made by Napoleon to

Battle of
Trafalgar.
1805.

Deaths of
Pitt and
Fox.
1806.

Sir Arthur
Wellesley
(Duke of
Wellington).
Born 1769.
Died 1852.

put his brother on the Spanish throne and to seize their own royal family. The Spaniards appealed to the English for aid, and this began the Peninsular War, so called from its having been fought in the Spanish Peninsula.

Sir Arthur Wellesley, who had already distinguished himself in a war in India, landed at Mondego, and defeated the French army in the battle of Vimiera, August 21st, 1808. The Peninsular War. 1808-1814. Owing to the conduct of Sir Harry Burrard and Sir Hew Dalrymple, his seniors in command, Wellesley was unable to take full advantage of his victory; and soon afterwards Napoleon himself appeared in Spain, and crushed the Spanish armies arrayed against him. Sir John Moore, who was marching to Salamanca that he might join these forces, was compelled to retreat, but saved the English name by a victory at Corunna, in which he fell mortally wounded.

Meanwhile Napoleon was obliged, owing to the rising of the Austrian nation against him, to leave the war in Spain under the command of Marshal Soult, who was defeated by Sir Arthur Wellesley (now made the English commander) in the battle of Talavera, July 28th, 1809. As a reward for this victory Wellesley received the title of Viscount Wellington. From this time onward he carried on the war with great courage and perseverance, winning splendid triumphs. By successive victories, the most important of which were Busaco, September 29th, 1810, Salamanca, July 22nd, 1812, and Vittoria, June 21st, 1813, he broke the power of Napoleon in Spain and Portugal, and drove his troops from the peninsula.

In 1812 Napoleon thought he would conquer Russia, but it proved a task beyond even his power. Not only did his soldiers suffer great hardships from the cold of the climate, but The burning of Moscow. 1812. when they reached Moscow it was set on fire by the Russians in order that the French troops might not take it. Napoleon was forced

to retreat, and nearly all his fine army perished in the snow.

In 1814 the English, Russian, Austrian, and Prussian armies united against Napoleon, entered France, captured Paris, and sent the Emperor to Elba, a little island in the Mediterranean.

Overthrow
of Napoleon.

1814.

The French then recalled their old royal family, and Louis XVIII. was crowned King. He did not reign long. The next year Napoleon escaped from Elba and returned to France, where his old soldiers welcomed him with great joy.

However, Europe was determined to prevent him, if possible, from any longer disturbing the peace; and England and Prussia collected their armies in the Netherlands to withstand him.

On June 18th, 1815, was fought the famous battle of Waterloo. Arthur Wellesley, who had been

Battle of
Waterloo.

1815.

made Duke of Wellington, was the commander-in-chief, and Marshal Blücher was the Prussian general. The battle took place near a little village called Waterloo. Napoleon came upon the English apart from their allies, who only began to arrive when the battle had lasted five hours. Throughout all this time Buonaparte strove in vain to break the British line. As the Prussians began to come up, Napoleon's Guards, who had been kept quite fresh, made a desperate charge. Wellington, who had also been keeping his Guards in reserve, saw that now was the time when they might be made most use of, and ordered them to charge the enemy. They repulsed the attack, and as the French Guard retired the Duke ordered a general advance of his whole forces. The Prussians were now in strong force, and their artillery began to tell. Napoleon, seeing that the victory was with his enemies, fled from the field. The Prussians pressing on completed the rout. Napoleon's army was utterly scattered, and this time he fell never to rise again. He was sent as a prisoner to St. Helena. Here he remained until his death in 1821.

The nation could not be engaged so long in war

without suffering great troubles in consequence. There was great distress amongst the poor, owing to the high price of provisions and the lowness of wages. Some of the bad laws which helped to make things worse will be best explained in the following chapters. But already, in the end of George III.'s reign, people were becoming very impatient, and insisted on the necessity for making large changes in the system of government. Great meetings were held for this purpose, and at one of them, held in 1819 at Manchester, on some open ground where the Free Trade Hall was afterwards built, the yeomanry were ordered to charge the people in order to drive them away. On this occasion some innocent persons were killed and more were wounded. Great indignation was roused against the Government, and the occurrence was afterwards known as the Manchester Massacre. ^{The "Manchester Massacre." 1819.}

The reign of George III., which had lasted nearly sixty years, was now drawing to a close. The last years of the King's life were very sad ones. Since he was quite young he had often been attacked by brain disease, and in 1810 he became so ill that he could no longer do any business. His eldest son George took his place, and reigned for him under the title of Prince Regent. Afflicted both with insanity and blindness, George III. died, January 29th, 1820. ^{Death of George III. 1820.}

Many distinguished literary men lived and wrote during the reigns of George II. and George III. They may be divided into two distinct groups, those who flourished towards the end of the eighteenth, and those who more properly belong to the nineteenth century.

Among the most noted of the former was Samuel Johnson. Johnson wrote a dictionary of the English language and several lighter books, among which may be mentioned the "Lives of the Poets" and "Rasselas." He also edited a periodical called the *Rambler*, which came ^{Dr. Johnson. Born 1709. Died 1784.}

out in the same form as the *Tatler* and *Spectator* had done previously. Johnson generally used in his writings very long words and sentences, as he seemed to think this gave a greater dignity to his style. During his lifetime his opinions were held in great reverence. His life, written by James Boswell, his intimate friend, is considered one of the best biographies in the English language. It gives us a very vivid picture of the man himself as well as of his companions.

Oliver Goldsmith is another author who lived during this period. Although he was careless and extravagant in his manner of life, his books are both good and amusing. The "Vicar of Wakefield" is a very entertaining tale, and his poems of the "Traveller" and the "Deserted Village" are familiar to most persons. Goldsmith also wrote a comedy, "She Stoops to Conquer," and various histories for children. The latter were at one time much used in schools.

The poets who followed Pope, and who tried to imitate his manner, were often stiff and formal, although some of them deserve to be remembered. James Thomson, a Scotchman, wrote the well-known poems of the "Seasons" and the "Castle of Indolence." Young was the author of a series of religious poems, called by him "Night Thoughts." But perhaps the finest poet of all was Thomas Gray, whose "Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard" is very beautiful.

Of historians we must mention David Hume, who wrote a "History of England," and Edward Gibbon, the author of the "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire." The latter book is, perhaps, the greatest historical work ever produced in any age, and is still considered the chief authority for the study of the period with which it deals. Edmund Burke, previously mentioned as a statesman, was a great political writer, and is also known as the author of "An Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful."

Oliver
Goldsmith.
Born 1731.
Died 1774.

Poetry.

History.

Towards the end of the eighteenth century the well-known poet, William Cowper, introduced a more natural style of writing than had been in fashion for some time. Cowper's health made his life a very sad one, but his longer works of the "Task," "Faith," "Hope," and "Charity" are full of bright pictures of nature, and written in a truly religious spirit, while his amusing tale of the ride of "John Gilpin" has made his name dear to children.

William
Cowper.
Born 1731.
Died 1800.

Cowper died in 1800, and in 1805 Sir Walter Scott published his first long poem, the "Lay of the Last Minstrel." Every one was delighted with it; and the "Lady of the Lake" and "Marmion," which followed, increased still further his popularity. After a time, however, this began to wane, and turning his talents in another direction Scott produced the "Waverley Novels." Of these there are twenty-five, but they are not all of equal merit. "Waverley," the "Heart of Midlothian," and "Ivanhoe" seem to be the general favourites.

Sir Walter
Scott.
Born 1771.
Died 1832.

It is said that Sir Walter Scott acknowledged himself beaten after seeing the works of George Gordon, Lord Byron, whose first considerable poem, the "Pilgrimage of Childe Harold," won him sudden fame. But Byron's poetry, though some of the finest in the English language, is often spoiled by the faults of his life and character. He died at Misolonghi, in Greece, where he had gone to fight for the Greeks against the Turks. He was then only thirty-six years old. His intimate friend, Percy Bysshe Shelley, whose poems also are of a very high order, was drowned in 1822, his boat being shipwrecked in a storm in the Mediterranean.

Lord Byron.
Born 1788.
Died 1824.

Shelley.

Another set of poets who flourished in the early years of this century were William Wordsworth, Robert Southey, and Samuel Taylor Coleridge. They were all friends, and lived among the Cumberland lakes. This fact gave to

The Lake
Poets.

them the name of the "Like Poets." Otherwise they were not very similar, and it was Wordsworth alone who wrote much about the natural objects by which he was surrounded. The language in which many of his shorter poems are written is so simple that they are often among the first given to children to learn by heart. Coleridge's "Ancient Mariner," the unfinished story of "Christobel," and others make us wish he had written more; but the same cannot be said of Southey, who was extremely industrious, and who wrote prose as well as poetry. His best prose works were the life of Nelson and the life of Wesley.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What was the result of the various great improvements made in machinery about this time? When and by whom was the first canal made? Mention any other great discoveries.—2. What led to the outbreak of the Gordon Riots? Give a description of them.—3. Explain the causes which enabled the Kings of France to gain despotic power. What privileges had the nobles over the working classes? What were the main grievances of the latter?—4. When did Louis XVI. come to the throne? Whom did he marry?—5. What were the "States-General"? When were they assembled, and after how long an interval? What idea caused great anger among the working classes in France? Give an account of the fall of the Bastille.—6. Relate the events which next followed in France, and mention the year in which the King and Queen were executed.—7. Give some account of William Pitt, Burke, and Fox. Show how political parties were much split up at this time.—8. How were those persons who wished for Reform in the British Government treated? Mention the three men who were tried and acquitted in 1794. What did their acquittal prove?—9. Describe the state of Ireland, and the way in which it was governed at this time.—10. What power did the Irish compel the English to give them in 1792? To what did these combined causes lead?—11. How long did the Irish Rebellion last? Where were the rebels defeated? Give the date of the Union of England and Ireland.—12. With whom were the English drawn into war? What was the character of Napoleon Buonaparte? How did he influence the French people? When, where, and between whom was the battle of the Nile fought?—13. Why was the jealousy of other nations aroused against England? What countries joined together to resist her? Give an account of the battle of Copenhagen, with its date.—14. In what year did England make peace with Napoleon? How long did this peace last? Mention the great battle in which Nelson was killed. Name the two great men who died in the following year. Where were they buried?—15. Give an account of the Peninsular War, and explain its cause.—16. What disastrous campaign was undertaken by Napoleon in 1812? What misfortunes had befallen his armies in the meantime? To what island was Napoleon sent? Relate the events of the following year.—17. What two nations now collected their armies against Napoleon? Describe the battle of Waterloo, naming the chief commanders.

Give the date. Where did Napoleon end his days!—18. Explain the causes and results of the "Manchester Massacre"! Give the date.—19. When and why was the Prince of Wales made Regent? Give the date of the death of George III.—20. Give some account of Samuel Johnson, James Boswell, and Oliver Goldsmith. What well-known poems

were written by Thomson, Young, and Gray!—21. Mention the great historians who wrote at this time. What do you know of William Cowper, Sir Walter Scott, and Lord Byron? What was the fate of Shelley? Name the three men who were called the "Lake Poets." Explain why this name was given to them.

CHAPTER LI.

GEORGE IV. 1820—1830.

GEORGE IV. had so long reigned as Regent that when he came to the throne it made very little difference to the country. There were some who liked him, and called him the "first gentleman in Europe;" but this was not a very good name for him, as there were many better gentlemen than the King. He was weak and selfish, but happily our Government was now so far settled that his weakness and selfishness did not do much harm.

The years that followed the battle of Waterloo were years of great distress among the poor. This was partly owing to the war, partly also to mistakes made by rulers. The nation had been fighting for so many years that, when peace came at last, numbers of soldiers had to be disbanded and sent to their homes.

As these men had no work to do they were very badly off. The working class also believed that the introduction of machinery into our manufactures must throw a great many persons out of work; for they argued that, as things can be made more quickly by machines than by the hand, fewer workpeople would be needed in future. This was a mistake, for in the end machinery always increases the need for workers.

In 1815, also, were passed certain laws called the "Corn Laws," which forbade any corn to be imported into this country until it had risen to so high a price as to almost produce a famine in the land. The need of work, the dearness of bread, and the severe laws all added to

Internal
troubles.

The Corn
Laws.
1815.

the discontent of the poor, and riots broke out in several places. For the reasons above-mentioned, there had arisen in the minds of many workmen a mad hatred both of machines and of those who used them; and bands of men called Luddites, from an idiot named Lud who broke a stocking-frame, went about the country breaking machines and doing much damage.

In February 23rd, 1820, it was discovered that a plot had been formed for murdering the King's ministers while they were at dinner. This, on account of the place in which the conspirators met, was named the Cato Street Conspiracy. It was discovered before any harm was done; and those who had taken the lead in it, the chief of whom was a man of the name of Thistlewood, were hanged or transported for life.

Before he had reigned long, George IV. lost the affections of many of his subjects by his treatment of the Queen. While still Prince of Wales, George had been always running into debt, and he had often to ask Parliament for money with which to pay what he owed. In 1795, when he was in worse difficulties than usual, his father had proposed that he should marry his cousin, Caroline of Brunswick, a lady whom he had never yet seen, but who was very rich. George consented, and the Princess was sent for to England. When he saw her, however, he did not like her, and all through his married life he treated her very unkindly. They had one child, the Princess Charlotte, who, had she lived, would have been Queen of England. She, with her little new-born baby, died in 1817, about a year after her marriage with Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg.

After a time Caroline grew weary of remaining near a husband who did not love her, and went abroad. Still she expected that when he became king she also would be crowned as queen. For this reason she came to England, and the public, who had a great regard for her, took her part in the

quarrel, and received her very warmly. The King, on his side, had determined that she should not live with him or be queen; and on the 6th of June she was accused in the House of Lords of wrongdoing.

This assembly then introduced a Bill of Pains and Penalties, in order to take from Her Majesty the title of queen, and dissolve her marriage with the King. This made both the King and the ministers who had undertaken the case very unpopular; and when, in November, it was seen that this unwise bill must be withdrawn, there was great rejoicing throughout the land. Nevertheless the King resolved that his wife should not be crowned with him. When the coronation day arrived the Queen went to Westminster Abbey, where the service was to be performed, but she was not allowed to enter. After this last insult, which took place in June, 1821, Caroline gave up further attempts to get her rights, and in the August following she died.

The Queen had said before her death that she did not wish to be buried in England, and her body was therefore taken to Brunswick, and laid by her father and brother. But even over her burial there was quarrelling; for in spite of bad weather crowds gathered to see the funeral procession on its way to Harwich. As it passed through the City violent disputes arose between the Life Guards and the people, and in the struggle some lives were lost. The behaviour of the soldiers on this occasion made the Government still more unpopular, and the idea that some reform in Parliament was needed began more and more to gain ground.

Meanwhile a spirit of liberty was growing up in every nation of Europe, and this spirit was not at all agreeable to those sovereigns who wished to rule as they chose. On this account Austria, Russia, and Prussia united together under the name of the "Holy Alliance," that they might oppose everywhere anything which appeared like revolution.

The "Holy Alliance."

George Canning, who was then the leading man in England, objected to this way of meddling with the affairs of other countries, and sympathised with an effort made at this time by the ^{Greek Independence.} Greeks to win their freedom from the ^{1827.} Turks.

The Greeks, as we should know, were a very great and famous nation in olden times, and their ancient language and writings are still studied and admired in our schools and colleges. This fact has always made some persons take more interest in the affairs of Greece than they would otherwise have done. In 1827 Canning persuaded Great Britain, France, and Russia to sign a treaty in London promising to put a stop to the war between Greece and Turkey, and to compel the Turks to acknowledge Greek independence.

Soon afterwards Canning died. He had hoped to have preserved England from further war, but to do this and fulfil the promises made in the "Treaty of London" was impossible. ^{Battle of Navarino.} On the 20th of October in the same year ^{1827.} the allied fleet, commanded by Admiral Codrington, was forced unexpectedly into a battle with the Turks and Egyptians in the harbour of Navarino, and, after a fight of four hours, beat them completely.

It was then settled that the Greeks should have a king of their own, and after the crown had gone begging for some time, it was offered to and accepted by Otho of Bavaria, who began to reign 1832, when he was only eighteen.

Almost the last remnant of the persecuting laws against Dissenters was embodied in the ^{Repeal of Test Acts.} Test and Corporation Acts, requiring every ^{1828.} one who took any public office to receive the communion according to the rites of the Church of England. The test had not been enforced for some time. But in 1828 it was openly abolished.

In 1829 the Roman Catholics obtained *emancipation*, that is, they were set free from all those unjust and severe laws which had been framed against

them in earlier reigns. In Ireland the Roman Catholics had not been allowed either to educate their children themselves or to send them abroad to be educated. If a child turned Protestant he might take his father's lands away from him, while no Roman Catholic could sit in Parliament or hold any office under Government. They were forbidden to exercise their religion, and, indeed, so cruel were the penalties attached to the Roman Catholic faith, that those who held it would still have been a terribly persecuted class had it not been that the laws against it were seldom put in force. Some of the worst of them had been already softened down, but no Roman Catholic, even in this country, could enter Parliament. The younger Pitt would have done away with these laws altogether at the time when England and Ireland were united had he not been very strongly opposed by George III.

In 1827 the question of Roman Catholic Emancipation had to be faced; for the discontent of the Irish had been long gaining ground, and at length many of them united to form the "Catholic Association," which before long gained so much power and influence, that it proved quite a rival to Parliament. It showed its strength by the election of a very popular Roman Catholic Irishman, named O'Connell, as member for Clare. At last the Duke of Wellington, who was now Prime Minister, and his colleague, Sir Robert Peel, both of whom had strongly opposed "Catholic Emancipation," began to fear a civil war. For this reason they suddenly gave way, and passed a bill which allowed Roman Catholics henceforth to enjoy equal rights with other Englishmen.

Another useful thing done by Sir Robert Peel was the appointing of a police force for the protection of London and other towns. Hitherto our chief defenders had been poor old watchmen—nicknamed Charlies—who were often too weak and infirm to be of much use in times of danger. The new force was, therefore, a great improvement.

Catholic
Emancipa-
tion.
1829.

The new
police.

The King, during the last years of his life, withdrew a good deal from public notice, and he died on the 26th of June, 1830.

Death of
George IV.
1830.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Relate the causes of the troubles in England which followed the battle of Waterloo.—2. What was the Cato Street conspiracy? Give its date.—3. Show how the King's conduct towards Queen Caroline made both him and the Government unpopular.—4. What nations agreed to form the Holy Alliance?—5. Why did Canning persuade Great Britain, Russia, and France to sign the Treaty of London?—6. Name the battle fought in the same year. Who commanded in this action? With what result?—7. What persecuting act was abolished in 1828?—8. Explain what is meant by Roman Catholic emancipation. Mention some of the laws formerly in force against Roman Catholics in Ireland.—9. What caused the Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel to pass this Act? Mention another useful measure passed by Sir Robert Peel.

CHAPTER LII.

WILLIAM IV. 1830—1837.

GEORGE IV. was succeeded by his brother William, Duke of Clarence, who had always been a popular favourite.

At the very outset of his reign an important event occurred. The first railway—that which runs from Liverpool to Manchester—was opened.

Railways.
1830. Iron rails for moving trucks had been used in mines before this time, and so also had the steam-engine; but to use both together as a means of conveyance was a new thing.

George Stephenson, a Northumberland man, was the first who proved to every one the value of locomotive engines, and he also made many improvements both in them and in the roads. Great fear was felt at first of the use of steam-engines for travelling. These fears were increased by a sad accident which happened when the line was opened on the 15th of September. Mr. Huskisson, an influential member of Parliament, and one of his Majesty's ministers, was thrown down and killed on the line. In spite of these fears and this accident, the railway was soon in constant use. The speed and safety of this new mode of travelling were soon proved. Other lines were soon commenced. In a few years they covered the land with a network of iron roads, and to those born since that time it seems almost impossible to imagine England without railways.

Meanwhile the discontent among the poor increased every day. The breaking of machines could

not be stopped, and the anger of the farm labourers against their masters soon began to show itself in the burning of ricks. Over and over again would the farmers find their ricks on fire, but very seldom were they able to discover who did the deed. Among other classes, also, there was a great outcry for reform in Parliament itself.

The Revolution of 1688 and the accession of William III. had, as we explained, given the chief power of government into the hands of the House of Commons; and this House was supposed to be chosen by the people to represent their wishes. But this was in reality far from being the case; for, owing to various causes, the people of England had during many years very little to do with the choice of their rulers.

In the first place, in the course of time, many towns which had been large and flourishing had dwindled down into small hamlets; while others, especially in the northern districts of England, had grown to a great size. These little towns still sent members to Parliament, while many large ones, such as Manchester, were not represented at all. It thus happened that in some country places there were not a dozen persons who were able to vote. They sent, as a matter of course, the great man of the district to Parliament, or the man who paid them best. Then in other towns there would be thousands of educated and well-to-do men who had no voice whatever in the election of members. It was also quite a common thing for a rich man to buy a seat in Parliament, and when he wanted it no more to sell it again; while in every place where there was any chance of competition at an election, those persons who wished to get into Parliament bribed their electors to a great extent.

In old times an election took forty days. During that period the town in which it was held was the scene of riot and drunkenness. The most absurd means for bribing the voters were used, and there

is a story told that a Duchess of Devonshire gave a kiss to a butcher in order to get his vote for the candidate she favoured.

It had been felt for a long time that this state of things should not continue; and on the 1st of March, 1831, Lord John Russell brought before Parliament a Reform Bill, which proposed to take away from fifty-six of the small and decayed boroughs the right of sending members to Parliament, and to give it instead to those larger districts and more important towns which were as yet unrepresented.

At the same time this bill proposed to give the right of voting at Parliamentary elections to a great many people who had not possessed it. The knights of the shires had been elected only by freeholders, that is, people who held independent possession of land. The bill conferred votes on all who held leases of land, and on all who paid £50 in rent. The members for the towns had been elected sometimes by the mayor and corporation, sometimes by a slightly larger circle of privileged persons, sometimes by freemen, that is, those who had the freedom of the borough, either through inheritance or through apprenticeship to a freeman. The bill gave votes to all who paid £10 in rent. These provisions made an enormous difference in the distribution of political power. And there is no wonder that it required a great struggle to carry it.

The measure was so strongly opposed that the King's ministers prevailed on him to dissolve Parliament; and when the new House of Commons was elected, the cry raised throughout the country was, "The bill, the whole bill, and nothing but the bill." With the intention of passing the Reform Bill the Commons met and carried it by a large majority. But when it was sent up to the Lords it encountered further opposition. This threw the country into a still greater state of excitement, and there were riots in several towns.

So resolute were the Lords in their rejection of it that the King began to think seriously of making a

number of new Peers who would vote for the measure, and the cry now was, "Swamp the Lords!"

At last, finding that the influence both of the Crown and people was directed against them, the Lords gave way, and on a third attempt the Reform Bill was passed; it became law June 7th, 1832.

The first reformed Parliament met January 29th, 1833. It passed many important measures. One of the most important was that for the reform of town corporations, passed in 1835. The ^{Municipal Reform.} object of this Act was to give the management of the business of towns into the hands of the inhabitants. This was done by providing a better system of electing the councillors, aldermen, and mayors. From the operation of this act the City of London was excepted. 1835.

Another Act of the reformed Parliament was the passing of a new Poor Law in 1834. The measure of Queen Elizabeth's reign had, in the course of time, become liable to much ^{New Poor Law.} abuse. The money intended for the wants of the poor was distributed in the most wasteful and reckless way; and some persons even paid their labourers very low wages, knowing that the deficiency would be made up by parish pay. Of course this was the way to destroy all independence, and made honest, hard-working labourers and their children into paupers. Instead of giving, as previously, out-door relief to those able to work, that is, money to be spent at home, such persons were compelled to enter the workhouse, and large buildings were erected for the common support of the paupers of several parishes, called unions. The management of these union workhouses was given into the hands of boards of guardians, elected in the neighbourhood, who, in their turn, were overlooked by a central board in London, called the Poor Law Board. 1834.

It was about this time that the old names of Whigs and Tories began to be replaced by those of Liberal and Conservative.

On October 16th, 1834, the old Houses of Parlia-

ment at Westminster, in which had been enacted so many famous scenes, were burnt to the ground. They were rebuilt in the reign of Queen Victoria, from a design of Sir Charles Barry.

Burning of
the Houses
of Parlia-
ment.
1834.

One of the best actions of the reformed Parliament was the entire abolition of slavery in our colonies.

Before this no Englishman was allowed to steal negroes from Africa and sell them as slaves, nor could any one keep a slave in this country. But in the colonies slavery still existed, to the distress of many good men and women, who spent their lives in bringing the subject again and again before our rulers, and in doing all in their power to stop it.

Abolition of
slavery.
1833.

Wilberforce, Zachary Macaulay, and Sir Thomas Fowell Buxton were the chief leaders of this movement against slavery; but it was long before people could be persuaded to set the slaves free. At length, on the 4th of August, 1833, an Act was passed which gave freedom to every slave living in our colonies. This deed cost the nation twenty millions of money, as those persons to whom the slaves belonged had to be paid for their loss. Since that day no one has owned a slave in any one of the British dominions.

William IV. died at Windsor Castle on June 20th, 1837, and left no children, having lost both his daughters when they were infants.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. When and where was the first railway opened? For what purpose had iron rails and the steam-engine been used before? Who proved the use of locomotive engines? What sad accident happened at the opening of the railway?—2. How did the popular discontent show itself at this time? For what reform was there a great outcry?—3. Explain why the House of Commons did not represent the wishes of the people. How long did an election take in former times?—4. What did the Reform Bill brought forward by Lord John Russell propose?—5. By whom was it opposed? What did the King's minis-

ters prevail on him to do in consequence?—6. From whom did the Bill encounter still further opposition? When was it at length carried?—7. When did the first reformed Parliament meet? Mention some important measures passed by it.—8. By what were the names of Whig and Tory replaced about this time?—9. Give the date of the burning of the old Houses of Parliament. From whose designs were they rebuilt?—8. What Act was passed August 4th, 1833? Mention some persons who were instrumental in getting this measure through Parliament? Give the date of King William's death?

CHAPTER LIII.

VICTORIA. 1837.

VICTORIA, the only child of Edward Duke of Kent, the fourth son of George III., came to the throne on the death of her uncle. As she was only eighteen at the time, her reign has been a long one, and happily bids fair to last for many more years. The laws of Hanover do not allow a woman to reign; this country was, therefore, separated from England when Queen Victoria came to the throne.

Separation
of the crowns
of England
and
Hanover.

The Queen married, February 10th, 1840, Prince Albert of Saxe Coburg and Gotha, with whom she led a very happy life. The Prince was a man whose goodness could not fail to win the love of those who knew him personally, and the nation felt for him a sincere respect. His death, which occurred December 14th, 1861, was much regretted.

The Prince
Consort.
Born 1819.
Died 1861.

The Queen and Prince Albert had nine children, all of whom are still living, with the exception of the Princess Alice, who died in 1878, on the same day of the month as her father.

The first great event of this reign was the repeal of the Corn Laws. It caused a great deal of discussion at the time, for there were many persons who believed that if we did not lay duties on those articles which foreign countries imported into England our own trade would suffer; and the farmers saw that if we were able to buy corn from other markets they would not get so much money in bad times for that which was grown at home. On

Repeal of the
Corn Laws.
1846.

the other hand, it was argued that cheap bread would make the country more prosperous, and that the farmers would share in this prosperity, because all the people would have more money to spend. But it was replied that British farmers had difficulties to contend with that were 'unknown in new lands like America, and that if they were not protected they would be ruined.

In spite of all that could be said, it was found necessary to do away with the Corn Laws; for Ireland was in such distress through bad seasons that nothing but cheap food from abroad could save the people from starvation; and in England the dearness of bread was the cause, as it had been for many years, of much poverty and discontent. In 1846 Sir Robert Peel, who had at first opposed the measure, passed the act for the repeal of the Corn Laws. From that time to this we have been able to buy all the corn we need from other countries, and our bread is in consequence much cheaper than it was before.

But it was not alone the dearness of bread which made the poor discontented. Many of them had to work hard for scanty wages, and both in town and country there was a great deal of misery. It was poverty and wretchedness that led numbers of working men to unite together with the intention of asking Government to grant them certain requests which would, they believed, improve their condition. Their demands were written down in what was called the People's Charter, and on this account they gained the name of *Chartists*.

Amongst other things the Charter required that the country should be divided into a number of districts having equal populations, and that each of these should send a member to Parliament. Every grown man was to have a vote. The voting was to be secret (by ballot). And members of Parliament were to be paid.

The Chartists kept the country in a disturbed state until 1848, in which year there were revolutions in

most of the countries of Europe. The French had risen against the King, Louis Philippe, and driven him from the throne; and there were also rebellions in Italy, Germany, and Spain. These events encouraged the Chartists in the belief they entertained that they might frighten the English Parliament into giving them what they wanted.

They accordingly drew up a monster petition, which they declared had been signed by five million persons, and arranged to meet on Kennington Common on the 10th of April, and go with it to the doors of the House of Commons. The Chartists hoped to collect in such a large number as to overawe the Government. But Parliament was well aware of their intentions, and took steps to prevent their doing any mischief.

Notice was first given that such a meeting was wrong and unlawful, because people are not allowed by law to meet near the Houses of Parliament for the purpose of forcing their decision. All persons whose intentions were harmless were warned not to attend. Policemen were then placed all about the neighbourhood of Kennington Common, while the Houses of Parliament were carefully guarded. Meanwhile thousands of private gentlemen promised to defend the streets, and were for this purpose sworn in as special constables. Every one being thus put on his guard, the Chartists had no chance of causing a tumult.

When the day arrived, the crowds who had assembled on the common were not allowed to proceed to the Houses of Parliament; and although the petition itself was received, the Chartists could not help feeling that they had failed. As for the monster petition, it proved only a laughing stock; for though it had been signed by many honest persons, a great number of silly forgeries had been added, such as the names of the Queen and Duke of Wellington, besides many others which every one knew to be false.

But some of the things for which the Chartists

asked were afterwards carried, and there has been since that time a great improvement in the state of the poor. Men can now earn more wages than they did, and many laws have been made for the protection of the working classes. No one can in these days send, as they used to do, children who are little more than babies to work hard in fields, or mines, or hot rooms.

In 1851 a design was formed by Prince Albert and others to have a grand Exhibition of the various articles manufactured in this and other countries. This was to be, it was thought, a means by which nations might help on the progress of the world, by showing each other what they could do. All were to meet as friends in this great temple of peace, and from henceforward there was to be no war or discord anywhere.

The Exhibition was held in Hyde Park, in the building afterwards removed to Sydenham, and called the Crystal Palace. But its appearance then was much more beautiful. The building was so large that some of the trees of the park remained inside, and the birds used to fly about among their branches. The Queen and Prince Albert with their children came to the opening of the Exhibition, and it was a very grand affair. From all parts of the world people sent specimens of their best handiwork. There were all kinds of manufactures, and wonderful sorts of machines, besides pictures, statues, and even toys.

But the Great Exhibition did not bring, as people fondly hoped, a reign of peace in Europe. The French had established a Republic in 1848, and had placed Louis Napoleon, the nephew of the great Buonaparte, at the head of the Government. He before long determined to make himself Emperor, and, in 1852, he managed, with the help of his soldiers, to put down all who opposed him and carry out his design.

Two years after (1854) the Russians attacked Turkey, whose part England took. To help the Turks,

improvement
in general
welfare.

The Great
Exhibition,
1851.

The Second
French
Empire,
1852.

the Queen joined with the Emperor of France, and began the war in the Crimea, which lasted from 1854 to 1856. It was a time of terrible suffering for the soldiers. Sebastopol, which was besieged by the English and French, was not taken for nearly a year, and the winter in that climate is intensely cold.

The Crimean War.
1854—1856.

But the courage of the allied armies held out bravely in spite of all drawbacks, and when, after the great victories of Alma and Inkerman, Sebastopol fell into their hands, Russia consented to come to terms.

The Crimean War was soon followed by the Indian Mutiny. The native soldiers in India are called Sepoys. These men believed that the Government was going to put down their religion, and became so terribly enraged at the idea that they rose up against the English and killed a great many of them.

The Indian Mutiny.
1857.

The mutiny began at Meerut, May, 1857; from thence the mutineers marched to Delhi, and took that city. Then having murdered in a most horrible way numbers of men, women, and children, they made the native king Emperor of Hindostan. At Cawnpore the same things occurred. The garrison there had been induced by Nana Sahib, a rich native, to surrender to the enemy, as he had promised to spare their lives. Nana proved to be a great traitor, for he not only slew all the armed men, but when he heard of the advance of some British forces under General Havelock, he put to death with much cruelty all their wives and children.

Meanwhile Havelock, who did not know the fate of the people at Cawnpore, marched on, in the hopes of saving them. He succeeded in defeating the Sepoys in several actions. When he reached Cawnpore and found what had been done he was greatly distressed, and having occupied that town, he determined, with the help of Sir James Outram, to reach Lucknow, which also was besieged by the rebels. Never, perhaps, did a British army or British officers show more courage than in this

march. It was midsummer at the time, and many soldiers died on the way owing to the intense heat of the sun. They had also to fight battles continually with the Sepoys, whom, however, they always succeeded in defeating. At length they reached Lucknow, but it was not until Sir Colin Campbell arrived with fresh troops that they were able to fetch away the garrison with the women and children. Havelock died soon after, and the mutiny was finally quelled by other hands.

It was decided after these events that the government of India should be taken out of the hands of the East India Company and transferred to the Crown. In 1877 our Queen took the title of Empress of India.

With the Indian Mutiny we shall close the history of our wars. Those lately undertaken in Africa and Afghanistan, though they have cost many lives and been renowned for brave actions, are too near our own time to be properly described in a history of this kind.

In addition to the repeal of the Corn Laws some other very important measures have been carried during the reign of Queen Victoria. In 1840 the *Penny Postage* for letters was introduced by Rowland Hill, who thereby conferred a priceless benefit on his countrymen, and through them on the world.

Recent
legislation.

Down to 1855 a stamp duty had been charged on newspapers, which made cheap papers impossible. In that year it was done away with, and since then penny and halfpenny papers have been printed in millions.

In 1867 a *New Reform Act* was carried, which gave county votes to all who pay £12 in rent, while in the towns it gave a vote to every householder. It established also vote by ballot, which had been demanded by the Chartists.

In 1870 was passed the *Elementary Education Act*, which required school places to be provided for all children of school age in the land. This Act also established school boards in all districts where sufficient school places could not be provided without them. Other improvements have since been made in this

law, by which it is hoped that education will become universal.

There has also been a great improvement made in our criminal law. During the last century our laws were extremely cruel. The punishment of death was awarded for even small thefts, ^{Reforms in the criminal law.} and new measures were constantly passed to make them more severe. It has been reckoned that from the Restoration to the death of George III. one hundred and eighty-seven offences punishable with death were added to the criminal code. In one instance on record, a young woman, who was in great distress owing to her husband being forcibly carried off as a sailor, was hung for taking a piece of coarse cloth from a draper's shop to save herself from starvation. To Sir Samuel Romilly belongs the honour of first attempting to moderate these terrible laws; and after his death, Sir James Mackintosh, Sir Robert Peel, and others continued the work. But it was not until the present reign that it was at last determined that for murder and treason alone the punishment of death should be awarded.

Side by side with reform in the criminal law has gone a reform in the treatment of prisoners. The terrible state of jails in former times has been mentioned in a previous chapter. Many of these evils were brought to light by John Howard, High Sheriff of Bedfordshire in 1773. He spent his life in the discovery and exposure of prison abuses. From that time to this much has been done to remedy them. Large model prisons have been built, and prisoners separated from each other, and employed in various ways. Reformatories and industrial schools have also been established, in which young persons convicted of crime, or neglected and destitute, may be properly trained, and, if possible, brought to lead useful lives. Public executions have also of late years been done away with, and the cruel punishments, once too common in the Army and Navy, have been exchanged for better modes of discipline.

That, however, for which this reign has been most

noted, is the wonderful progress of invention and discovery. The great increase of railways, the introduction of the penny postage, the invention of photography, of the electric telegraph, the telephone, and of various new printing machines required by the enormous circulation of newspapers, have made greater changes in the face of the world during the last fifty years than were ever made in the same space of time before.

When we consider all this we must feel that the English people ought to be happier now than they have ever been in former ages, and we cannot be too thankful that our government has become purer, our laws more merciful, our religion more tolerant, and our respect for human nature less dependent on distinctions of class or race.

But in forming even our first notions of English history, we hope it will be remembered that it is not to our own virtues we owe our present advantages. They have been gained for us by the struggles of the past; and the chief lesson impressed upon us by our studies in English History should be that, if we would prove ourselves worthy of the noble example set us by many of our forefathers, we must not slacken in our efforts, but try to leave the world, when we die, a little better than we found it.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Of whom was Queen Victoria the daughter? What principality was separated from England when she came to the throne, and why? Whom did the Queen marry? Give the date of her husband's death?—2. What were the Corn Laws? Why were the farmers opposed to their repeal? Why was it found necessary to do away with them? When and by whom was the measure passed for this repeal?—3. Mention some other causes which gave rise to discontent among the people? Name the demands made in the People's Charter?—4. What petition did the Chartists draw up, and where did they agree to meet?—5. What steps did Parliament take to prevent the

Chartists doing mischief? What improvements have been made in the condition of the people since that time?—6. For what object was the first Great Exhibition designed? Give a description of it.—7. Relate the events which occurred soon after in France.—8. In whose aid did the English and French undertake the Crimean War? Mention the most famous actions of the war.—9. Give an account of the Indian Mutiny. To what decision did the Government afterwards come with regard to India? What title did the Queen take in 1877?—10. Name some of the most important measures passed during this reign.

ANGLO-SAXON KINGS.

THE SOVEREIGNS OF ENGLAND.—GENEALOGIES.

Double Lines show Intermarriages.

EGBERT.
• R. 802—837.

ETHELWULF.
R. 837—858.

1
ETHELBAID. ETHELBERT. ETHELRED. ALFRED = Alswitha.
R. 868—860. R. 860—866. R. 866—871. R. 871—901.

EDWARD the Elder.
R. 901—926.

1 2 3
ATHELSTANE EDMUND = Elgiva. EDRED.
R. 925—940. R. 940—946. R. 946—955.

THE NORMAN KINGS.

Rollo, First Duke of the Normans.

D. 927.

William Longsword.

D. 943.

Richard

The Fearless.

D. 996.

Richard the Good.

D. 1026.

Robert the Magnificent = Herleva.

D. 1035.

WILLIAM I. = Matilda of
the Conqueror. Flanders.
R. 1066. D. 1087.

Emma.

THE SOVEREIGNS OF ENGLAND.—GENEALOGIES.

The Names of Kings and Queens are in Capitals.

WILLIAM I. = Matilda, of Flanders.
B. 1027. D. 1087.

2

1

Robert,

WILLIAM II.

HENRY I. = Matilda

R. 1066. D. 1100.

R. 1066 / of

Duke of Normandy.

Adela = Stephen,
D. 1107 / of

10

11

12

13

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

B. C.

54—55 Julius Cæsar lands in Britain.

A. D.

- 43 Claudius Cæsar comes to Britain.
- 50 Caractacus conquered.
- 61 Boadicea rebels against the Romans.
- 81 Agricola's Wall built.
- 121 Hadrian's Wall made.
- 207—210 The Wall of Severus built.
- 409 The Romans leave Britain.
- 449 The Kingdom of Kent founded by Hengist.
- 477 The Kingdom of Sussex founded by Ella and Cissa.
- 495 The Kingdom of Wessex founded by Cerdic and Cynric.
- 547 The Kingdom of Northumberland founded by Ida.
- 597 Ethelbert, King of Kent, converted by Augustine.
- 627 Edwin, King of Northumbria, converted by Paulinus.
- 633 Edwin slain at Hatfield.
- 688 Downfall of Northumbria.
- 759 Offa, King of Mercia.
- 802 Egbert, King of Wessex.
- 836 Ethelwulf.
- 871 Alfred the Great becomes King.
- 878 Peace of Wedmore.
- 901 Edward the Elder.
- 922 Edward becomes Lord over all Britain.
- 925 Athelstane.
- 940 Edmund the Magnificent.
- 946 Edred.
- 955 Edwy.
- 957 Edgar.
- 975 Edward the Martyr.
- 975 Ethelred the Unready.
- 991 Battle of Malden. First Danegeld.
- 1002 Massacre of St. Brice.
- 1003 Swegen invades England.
- 1013 Flight of Ethelred.
- Death of Sweyn and return of Ethelred.

- 1015** Edmund Ironside and Canute.
1017 Canute the Great, King of all England.
1020 Godwin made Earl of Wessex.
1035 Canute dies.
 Harold and Hardicanute.
1040 Death of Harold.
1042 Death of Hardicanute.
 Edward the Confessor.
1050 Rivalry between Earl Godwin and the Normans.
1051 Earl Godwin and his sons banished.
1052 William of Normandy visits England.
 Return and death of Earl Godwin.
1053 Rise of Harold.
1066 Death of Edward.
 Harold chosen King, January 5th.
 Battle of Stamford Bridge, September 25th.
 Battle of Hastings, October 14th.
 WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR, December 25th.
1069 William harries Northumberland.
1075 Conspiracy of William's nobles.
1085 Domesday book compiled.
1087 WILLIAM RUFUS.
1092 Anselm made Archbishop of Canterbury.
1098 Dispute between Robert and William.
1100 William shot in the New Forest.
 HENRY I. (Beauclerk).
 Henry gives a Charter to the people.
1106 Beginning of the Crusades. Question of Investitures
 settled.
 War between Henry and Robert.
 Battle of Tenchbrai.
1120 Wreck of the *White Ship*.
1137 STEPHEN OF BLOIS.
1137 Stephen quarrels with the Church.
 Matilda comes to England. Civil War.
1153 Treaty between Stephen and Henry at Wallingford.
1154 HOUSE OF ANJOU.—HENRY II.
1162 Thomas à Becket made Archbishop of Canterbury.
1164 Constitutions of Clarendon.
1170 Murder of Becket.
1171 Invasion of Ireland.
1174 First revolt of Henry's sons.
1189 Rebellion of Richard.
 RICHARD I. (Cœur de Lion).
1190 Richard goes on a crusade.
 Longchamp deposed.
1192 Richard imprisoned by Leopold, Duke of Austria.
1197 Richard builds Château Gaillard.
1199 JOHN (Lackland).
1203 Murder of Arthur.

- A.D.
 1204 The French conquer Maine and Anjou.
 1213 John becomes the Pope's vassal.
 1214 Battle of Bouvines.
 1215 The Great Charter.
 1216 The Barons seek aid from Louis of France.
 1216 HENRY III. (of Winchester).
 Fair of Lincoln.
 1217 Louis returns to France.
 1232 Fall of Hubert de Burgh.
 1236 Henry marries Eleanor of Provence.
 Influx of Foreigners.
 Rise of Simon de Montfort.
 1259 The Provisions of Oxford.
 The Barons make war on Henry.
 1264 Battle of Lewes, May 14th.
 Mise of Lewes.
 1265 The Commons first called to Parliament.
 Battle of Evesham, August 4th.
 1274 EDWARD I. (Longshanks).
 1282 Conquest of Wales.
 1290 The Jews expelled from England.
 Death of the Maid of Norway.
 1295 War between England and Scotland begins.
 The English Parliament finally settled.
 1305 Execution of William Wallace.
 1306 Rise of Robert Bruce.
 1307 EDWARD II. (of Carnarvon).
 1312 Execution of Gaveston.
 1314 Battle of Bannockburn, June 24th.
 Rise of the Despensers.
 1322 Execution of Earl Thomas of Lancaster.
 1325 Queen Isabella goes to France.
 1326—1327 The Queen and Mortimer return to England.
 Edward deposed and murdered.
 EDWARD III. (of Windsor).
 1328 Mortimer recognises the Independence of Scotland
 1330 Execution of Mortimer.
 1338 *Beginning of the Hundred Years' War.*
 1340 Fight off Sluys.
 1346 Battle of Crecy, August 26th.
 Battle of Neville's Cross, October 17th.
 1347 Siege of Calais.
 1349 The Black Death visits England.
 1356 Battle of Poitiers, September 19th.
 1360 Treaty of Bretigny, May 8th.
 1368 The Good Parliament.
 1376 Death of the Black Prince.
 1377 RICHARD II. (of Bordeaux).
 1381 Wat Tyler's Rebellion.
 1383 Richard takes the Government into his own hands.

- AD.**
1384 Death of John Wycliffe.
1397 Death of the Duke of Gloucester.
1398 Parliament makes Richard absolute.
1399 Henry of Bolingbroke lands in England.
HENRY IV. (of Bolingbroke). (House of Lancaster).
 Death of Richard II.
1400 Rebellion of Owen Glendower.
1401 Law passed against heretics.
1402 Battle of Homildon Hill, September 14th.
1403 Battle of Shrewsbury, July 21st.
1405 Revolt of the Earl of Northumberland and Archbishop
 Scrope.
1406 Capture of Prince James of Scotland.
1413 **HENRY V.** (of Monmouth).
 Lollard Revolt.
1415 Plot of the Earl of Cambridge.
 Invasion of Normandy.
 Battle of Agincourt, October 25th.
1417 Execution of Sir John Oldcastle.
1420 Treaty of Troyes, May 21st.
1422 **HENRY VI.** (of Windsor).
1429 Siege of Orleans.
1431 Joan of Arc burned at Rouen.
1435 Death of the Duke of Bedford.
1441 Trial of Eleanor Cobham.
1444 Henry marries Margaret of Anjou.
1447 Death of Gloucester and Cardinal Beaufort.
1450 Execution of Suffolk. Jack Cade's Rebellion.
1451 Loss of Normandy and Guienne.
1455 Beginning of the Wars of the Roses.
 First Battle of St. Albans, May 22nd.
1460 Battle of Wakefield, December 30th.
1461 Battle of Mortimer's Cross, February 2nd.
 Second Battle of St. Albans, February 17th.
EDWARD IV. (House of York).
 Battle of Towton, March 29th.
1464 Edward marries the Lady Grey.
1470 Rebellion of Warwick.
1471 Battle of Barnet, April 14th.
 Battle of Tewkesbury, May 4th.
1475 Expedition of King Edward to France.
1477—1478 Caxton sets up the first Printing Press at West-
 minster.
 Death of the Duke of Clarence.
1483 **EDWARD V.**, April 3rd.
 Overthrow of the Queen's Relations.
 Richard made Protector, May 4th.
 Edward V. deposed, June 25th.
RICHARD III.
 Murder of Edward V. and the Duke of York.

- A.D.
 1483 Insurrection of Buckingham.
 1485 Battle of Bosworth, August 22nd.
 1486 HENRY VII. (The Tudors.)
 Henry marries Elizabeth of York.
 1487 Plot of Lambert Simnel.
 1491 Henry makes an Expedition to France.
 1496 Conspiracy of Perkin Warbeck.
 1497 Cabot discovers the mainland of America.
 1498 Revival of Learning begun at Oxford.
 1499 Execution of Perkin Warbeck and the Earl of Warwick.
 HENRY VIII.
 1509 Henry marries Catherine of Aragon.
 1513 Battle of Flodden Field, September 9th.
 1517 Luther publishes his Thesis against Indulgences.
 1529 Death of Cardinal Wolsey. Quarrel with the Pope.
 1531 Henry takes the title of Head of the Church.
 1532 Henry divorces Catherine of Aragon and marries Anne
 Boleyn.
 1536 Dissolution of the smaller Monasteries.
 Wales united to England.
 1537 Pilgrimage of Grace.
 1539 Suppression of the larger Abbeys.
 1542 Ireland made a Kingdom.
 1547 EDWARD VI.
 Battle of Musselburgh, September 10th.
 1548 Cranmer compiles the English Prayer Book.
 Sir Thomas Seymour beheaded.
 1549 Revolt of Ket and the Peasants.
 1551 Execution of Somerset.
 1553 MARY.
 The Roman Catholic worship restored.
 Wyatt's Rebellion.
 1554 Mary marries Philip of Spain.
 Lady Jane Grey executed.
 England reconciled to the Pope.
 1555 Martyrdom of Ridley and Latimer.
 1556 Cranmer burned.
 1558 Calais lost to England.
 1559 ELIZABETH.
 Protestantism re-established.
 1561 Mary Stuart returns to Scotland.
 1565 Mary Stuart marries Darnley.
 1566 Royal Exchange built.
 1567 Murder of Darnley.
 1568 Mary takes refuge in England.
 1576 First Theatre established at Blackfriars.
 1587 Execution of Mary Queen of Scots.
 1588 Defeat of the Spanish Armada.
 1603 The Conquest of Ireland completed.
 Monopolies abolished.

- A.D.
 1603 JAMES I. (House of Stuart.)
 1604 Hampton Court Conference.
 1606 Gunpowder Plot discovered, November 5th.
 1618 Execution of Sir Walter Raleigh.
 1620 The *Mayflower* sails to America.
 Trial of Sir Francis Bacon.
 1623 Charles goes to Madrid.
 1624 War declared against Spain.
 1625 CHARLES I.
 1628 Petition of Right. Murder of Buckingham.
 1631 Wentworth becomes Lord Deputy in Ireland.
 1633 Laud made Archbishop of Canterbury.
 1637 Hampden refuses to pay ship money.
 1640 The Bishops' War.
 Long Parliament begins to sit, November.
 1641 Trial and death of Strafford, May.
 Rebellion and massacre in Ireland, October.
 1642 Charles impeaches the Five Members, November.
 Civil War begins, August.
 1644 Battle of Marston Moor, July 1st.
 Execution of Laud.
 1645 Battle of Naseby, June 14th.
 1647 Charles flies to Carisbroke Castle.
 Battle of Preston, August 18th.
 1649 Execution of the King, January 30th.
 THE COMMONWEALTH.
 Cromwell goes to Ireland.
 Storm of Drogheda, August.
 Cromwell goes to Scotland.
 1650 Battle of Dunbar, September 3rd.
 1651 Battle of Worcester, September 3rd.
 1653 Cromwell turns out the Long Parliament, April 19th.
 OLIVER CROMWELL (Protector).
 1658 Death of Cromwell, September 3rd.
 RICHARD CROMWELL (Protector).
 Long Parliament re-assembles.
 1660 CHARLES II., May.
 1661 The Act of Uniformity.
 1662 The Puritan Clergy leave the Church of England.
 1664 War with Holland begun.
 1665 The Plague of London. Five Mile Act.
 1666 The Fire of London.
 1667 The Dutch sail up the Medway.
 1668 Triple Alliance.
 Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
 1670 Treaty of Dover.
 1680 Popish Plot.
 1682 Rye House Plot.
 1685 JAMES II.
 Rebellions of Argyle and Monmouth.

- A.D.
 1685 The Bloody Assize.
 1687 Declaration of Indulgence.
 1688 The Seven Bishops tried for libel, June.
 William of Orange lands at Torbay, November 5th.
 1689 WILLIAM AND MARY. February 13th.
 Bill of Rights.
 Battle of Killikrankie, July 27th.
 William allies himself with Spain and Denmark against France.
 Siege of Londonderry.
 1690 Battle of the Boyne, July 1st.
 1691 Battle of Aughrim, July.
 Treaty of Limerick, October 3rd.
 1692 Massacre of Glencoe. Battle of La Hogue, May 19th.
 1694 The Bank of England established.
 Death of Queen Mary.
 1697 Peace of Ryswick.
 1701 Act of Settlement.
 Death of James II.
 War of the Spanish Succession begins.
 1702 ANNE.
 1704 Battle of Blenheim, August 13th. Capture of Gibraltar.
 1706 Battle of Ramillies, May 23rd.
 1707 Union of England and Scotland, May 1st.
 1708 Battle of Oudenarde, July 11th.
 1709 Battle of Malplaquet, September 11th.
 1710 Trial of Dr. Sacheverel.
 1712 Dismissal of Marlborough from office.
 1713 Treaty of Utrecht.
 1714 GEORGE I. (House of Hanover.)
 1715 Jacobite Rebellion.
 1716 The Septennial Act passed.
 1720 The South Sea Bubble.
 1721 Sir Robert Walpole becomes Prime Minister.
 1727 GEORGE II.
 1738 Spanish War begins.
 1741 War of the Austrian Succession.
 1743 Battle of Dettingen, June 27th.
 1745 Battle of Fontenoy, May 31st.
 Jacobite Revolt. Battle of Culloden, April 16th.
 1748 Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
 Clive captures Arcot.
 Methodist Revival begins.
 1757 Death of Admiral Byng.
 William Pitt becomes Prime Minister.
 Clive wins the Battle of Plassy, June 23rd.
 1759 Wolf takes Quebec.
 1760 GEORGE III.
 William Pitt resigns office. Peace made with France.
 1766 Stamp Act passed.

- A.D.
 1766 Pitt made Earl of Chatham.
 1767 Tea Riot at Boston.
 War of Independence begins.
 Battles of Lexington and Bunker Hill.
 1776 Declaration of Independence, July 4th.
 Battle of Saratoga, October 13th.
 Death of Chatham.
 The English recognise American Independence.
 1780 The Gordon Riots, June.
 French Revolution begins.
 1792 The mob destroy the Bastille.
 1793 Louis XVI. guillotined.
 The second William Pitt becomes Prime Minister.
 1794 Trial of Thomas Hardy, John Horne Tooke, and John Thelwal.
 1797 The English go to war with France.
 1798 Rebellion in Ireland. Battle of Vinegar Hill.
 Battle of the Nile, August 1st.
 1801 Union of England and Ireland, January 1st.
 1802 Peace of Amiens.
 1803 War renewed with France.
 1805 Battle of Trafalgar, October 21st.
 1806 Deaths of Pitt and Fox.
 Peninsular War begun.
 1810 Regency of George, Prince of Wales.
 1812 Napoleon invades Russia.
 1814 Napoleon banished to Elba.
 1815 Battle of Waterloo, June 18th.
 Napoleon banished to St. Helena.
 Corn Law passed.
 1820 GEORGE IV.
 Cato Street Conspiracy.
 Trial of Queen Caroline.
 1821 The Holy Alliance.
 Treaty of London.
 1827 Battle of Navarino.
 1828 Laws against Dissenters abolished.
 1829 Catholic Emancipation Act, April 13th.
 1830 WILLIAM IV.
 First Railway made.
 1832 Reform Bill passed, June 7th.
 1833 Slavery abolished in the English Colonies, August 4th.
 1834 Old Houses of Parliament destroyed by fire.
 1837 VICTORIA.
 1846 Repeal of the Corn Laws.
 1848 Chartist Riots.
 1851 First Great International Exhibition.
 1854—1856 Crimean War.
 1857 Indian Mutiny.
 1870 School Boards established.

INDEX.

- Addison, Joseph, 349.
 Adela, daughter of William the Conqueror, 68.
 Aghrim, battle of, 337.
 Agincourt, battle of, 156.
 Aix-la-Chapelle, peace of, 309.
 Albany, Duke of, 148.
 Albert, Prince of Saxe Coburg, 403.
 Alfege, Archbishop of Canterbury, murder of, 33.
 Alfred the Great, King, 22—25.
 Alfred, brother of Edward the Confessor, 38.
 Alice Lisle, 321.
 Alice, Princess, 405.
 American Colonies, 370; taxed by the English Parliament, 371; rebellion of the, 372; declare themselves independent, 373; become United States, 373.
 Amiens, Peace of, 386.
 Angels, 6—10.
 Angles, 10.
 Anlaf, 27.
 Anne of Bohemia, Queen, wife of Richard II., 139, 150.
 Anne, daughter of the Earl of Warwick, wife of Richard III. (*See NEVILLE.*)
 Anne of Brittany, 201.
 Anne Boleyn, Queen, wife of Henry VIII., 217, 218, 221.
 Anne of Cleves, 222.
 Argyle, Insurrection of, 320.
 Arlington. (*See CABAL.*)
 Armada, Spanish, 260, 262.
 Arrest of the Five Members, 286.
 Arthur of Brittany, 39.
 Arthur, Prince of Wales, son of Henry VII., 204.
 Aske, Sir John. (*See Pilgrimage of Grace.*)
 Assemblies, 14.
 Assize of Arms, 82.
 Assize, Bloody, 321.
 Athelstan, 27.
 Augustine, St., 16.
 Austrian Succession, War of, 362.
 Babington Conspiracy, 253.
 Bacon, Francis Lord, 258, 272.
 Badlesmere, Lady, 118.
 Baeda. (*See BADM.*)
 Bagot, 141.
 Ball, John, 136.
 Banbury, Battle of, 182.
 Bank of England, 389.
 Bannockburn, 117.
 Barnett, Battle of, 184.
 Bastille, Fall of the, 381.
 Battles. (*See under names of battle-fields.*)
 Beaufort, Henry, 168, 169, 170, 171.
 Beaugé, Battle of, 159.
 Becket, Thomas à, .
 Bede, 18.
 Bedford, John, Duke of, 151, 160, 161, 162, 165, 169.
 Beorne, 41.
 Bertha, wife of Ethelbert, King of Kent, 16.
 Bigod, 112.
 Bill of Rights, 329.
 Bishops' War, 283.
 Blake, Admiral, 306.
 Blenheim, Battle of, 345.
 Bloody Assize, 321.
 Bloreheath, Battle of, 175.
 Blücher, Marshal, 388.
 Boadicea, 4.
 Bohun, 112.
 Bolingbroke, Roger, 170.
 Bolingbroke. (*See HENRY IV.*)
 Bolingbroke. (*See ST. JOHN.*)
 Bookland, 15.
 Bosworth, Battle of, 196.
 Boswell, James, 390.
 Bothwell, James Hepburn, Lord, 250.
 Boulogne ceded to France, 229.
 Bouvines, Battle of, 92.
 Boyne, Battle of the, 337.
 Brackenbury, Constable of the Tower, 193.
 Brandon, Charles, Duke of Suffolk, 204.
 Bretigny, Treaty of, 133.

- Bridgnorth, 26.
 Brindley, Richard. (*See* CAWAL.)
 Bruce, Robert, 108, 109, 117.
 Bruce, Nigel, 110.
 Bruce, David, 126.
 Brunanburgh, Battle of, 27.
 Brusaco, Battle of, 387.
 Buckingham, Henry, Duke of, 190, 194, 195.
 Buckingham, Robert Villars, Duke of, 271, 273, 274, 276, 277, 278, 279.
 Burgundy, Duke of, 155, 161, 169.
 Burke, Edmund, 382, 390.
 Burleigh, Cecil, Lord, 245.
 Bunyan, John, 316.
 Buonaparte (*see* NAPOLEON), 385—389.
 Burrard, Sir Harry, 387.
 Buxton, Sir Thomas Fowell, 404.
 Byng, Admiral, shot, 366.
 Cabal, 309.
 Cabot, Sebastian, 206.
 Cade Jack, Rebellion of, 179.
 Caesar Claudius, 2.
 Cæsar, Julius, 1, 2.
 Calais, Siege of, 127, 128.
 Calvin, John, 244.
 Cambridge, Earl of, Conspiracy of the, 155.
 Campbell, Colin, Sir, 410.
 Canada, Conquest of, 367.
 Canute, King, 65—68.
 Caractacus, 2.
 Carew, Sir Peter, 235.
 Caroline, Trial of Queen, wife of George IV., 396.
 Castles, Norman, 69.
 Catherine of France, wife of Henry V., 159, 160.
 Catherine of Aragon betrothed to Arthur, son of Henry VII., 204; marries Henry VIII., 211; divorced, 217; dies, 221.
 Catherine Howard, wife of Henry VIII., 222.
 Catherine Parr, wife of Henry VIII., 222.
 Catherine of Braganza, wife of Charles II., 308.
 Cavallera, term first used, 287.
 Cedric, 12.
 Chancellor, explanation of his duty, 81.
 Chancellor, Richard, Sir, 256.
 Charles the Great, King of the Franks, 20.
 Charles V., Emperor of Germany, 213, 216, 217.
 Charles VIII., King of France, 201.
 Charles I., 398.
 Charles II., 304—317.
 Charlotte, Princess, daughter of George IV., 397.
 Charter of Henry I., 62.
 Charter of Stephen, 68.
 Charter, Great, of John, 93.
 Charter, Confirmation of the, 112.
 Charter, People's, 406.
 Chartists, 407.
 Chateau Gaillard, building of (Sawcy Castle), 87.
 Chichester, Bishop of, 171.
 Churchill. (*See* MARLBOROUGH.)
 Cinric, 12.
 Cissa, 12.
 Clarence, Thomas, Duke of, 151, 159.
 Clarence, George, Duke of, 180, 181, 183, 185, 186.
 Clifford, Lord, 177, 179.
 Clifford. (*See* CABAL.)
 Clarendon, Earl of, Sir Edward Hyde, 307—309.
 Claverhouse, John Graham, 319, 332.
 Colet, John, 207, 209, 210, 211.
 Columbus, Christopher, 206.
 Constitutions of Clarendon. (*See* BECKER.)
 Constantinople taken by the Turks, 206.
 Conyers, William, Sir. (*See* ROSE OF REDESDALE.)
 Copenhagen, Battle of, 384, 385.
 Corunna, Battle of, 387.
 Courtenay, Earl of Devon, 234.
 Covenant, First, 248.
 Covenanters, 319.
 Crammer, Thomas, 217, 225, 236, 237, 241.
 Crecy, Battle of, 125.
 Crimean War, 409.
 Cromwell, Thomas (Hammer of the Monks), 220, 222.
 Cromwell, Oliver, 287, 303.
 Cromwell, Richard, 304.
 Crusaders, First, 64.
 Crusaders of Richard I., 85.
 Crusaders of Edward I., 102.
 Cumberland, William, Duke of, 363, 363.
 Curfew Bell, 5.
 Curia Regis, 81.
 Culloden, Battle of, 363.
 Dalrymple, Sir John, 333, 334.
 Dalrymple, Sir Hew, 387.
 Danby, Lord, 311.
 Danish Invasions, 20—24, 31, 35.
 Danegeld, 32.
 Danton, 381.
 Darnley, Henry Stuart, Lord, 250.
 David, Prince of Wales, 104.
 Declaration of Indulgence, 323.
 Defoe, Daniel, 350.
 Dermot, Prince of Leitrin, 78.
 Derwentwater, Earl of, 353.

- Despensers, Hugh, 118.
 Despotism, Rise of, 198, 212, 222.
 Dettingen, Battle of, 362.
 Dissenters, Laws against, 306, 307, 310, 319.
 Domesday Book, 55.
 Don Pedro, 133.
 Dover, Treaty of, 310.
 Drake, Francis, 259, 261.
 Drogheda, Storm of, 396.
 Druids, 2.
 Dudley, Baron of the Exchequer, 204, 209, 224.
 Dudley, Guildford, husband of Lady Jane Grey, 231, 237.
 Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury, 23, 29.

 East India Company, 374, 375, 410.
 Edgar, King, 29.
 Edgar Ætheling, 51.
 Edinburgh founded by Edwin, 17.
 Edith, wife of Edward the Confessor, 41, 51.
 Edith. (*See* MATILDA.)
 Edmund, St., 22.
 Edmund, King, 28.
 Edmund Ironside, 34.
 Edmund Mortimer, 146.
 Edmund, Duke of Rutland, 177.
 Edred, King, 27—28.
 Edward the Elder, King, 27.
 Edward the Martyr, King, 30.
 Edward the Confessor, King, 40—46.
 Edward, son of Edmund Ironside, 45.
 Edward I., 102—113.
 Edward II., 114—120.
 Edward III., 121—134.
 Edward IV., 177—186.
 Edward V., 187—191.
 Edward VI., 224—231.
 Edward, Prince of Wales, the Black Prince, 125, 126, 133, 134.
 Edward, Prince of Wales, son of Henry VI., 176, 184.
 Edward, son of Richard III., 195.
 Edwin, King of Northumbria, 17.
 Edwy, King, 28, 29.
 Egrith, 19.
 Egbert, King, 20, 21.
 Eleanor of Aquitaine, wife of Henry II., 72.
 Eleanor of Provence, wife of Henry III., 97.
 Eleanor of Castile, wife of Edward I., 102, 105.
 Eleanor Cobham, trial of, 169, 170.
 Elector Palatine (Frederic), 269.
 Elementary Education Act, 410.
 Elfrida, 30.
 Elgiva, wife of King Edwy, 29.
 Elgiva, wife of King Canute, 38.
 Elizabeth Grey (Woodville), wife of Edward IV., 180, 181, 188, 189, 190, 195.
 Elizabeth York, wife of Henry VII. (*See* YORK.)
 Elizabeth, Queen, 244—264.
 Elizabeth, Princess, daughter of James I., 269.
 Eliot, Sir John, 280.
 Emma, wife of Ethelred the Unready, marries King Canute, 32, 36, 38.
 Empson, Baron of the Exchequer, 204, 209.
 Erasmus, 207, 209, 210, 211, 219.
 Essex founded, 12.
 Essex, Robert Devereux, Earl of, 363.
 Ethelbert, King of Kent, 16.
 Ethelbert, 21.
 Ethelwulf, King of Wessex, 21.
 Ethelred I., 21.
 Ethelred II., Unready, 30, 35.
 Ethelbald, 21.
 Ethelfleda, Lady of the Mercians, 25.
 Eustace, Count, 42.
 Evesham, Battle of, 100.
 Excommunication, 91.
 Exchequer, Court of, 81.
 Excise, 360.
 Exclusion Bill, 313.
 Eye, Witch of, 169.

 Fairfax, Sir Thomas, 289.
 Fair of Lincoln, 95.
 Falkirk, Battle of, 108.
 Fawkes, Guy. (*See* GUNPOWDER PLOT.)
 Feudal System, 56.
 Felton assassinates the Duke of Buckingham, 279.
 Ferdinand, King of Spain, 204, 212, 213.
 Ferry Bridge, Battle of, 179.
 Field of the Cloth of Gold, 213.
 Fire of London, 306.
 Fitzstephen, Robert. (*See* INVASION OF IRELAND.)
 Fitzgerald, Maurice. (*See* INVASION OF IRELAND.)
 Five Mile Act, 307.
 Flemings, Settlement of, 66.
 Flodden Field, Battle of, 213.
 Folkland, 15.
 Forest, New, 55.
 Forest Laws, 53, 55.
 Fort William, 333.
 Fox, Charles James, 382, 386.
 Franks, 18.
 Frea Goddess, 10.
 Freeman, 7, 8, 15.
 Frederic, Prince of Wales, son of George II., 363.
 Frobiisher, Martin, 259, 269.

- Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, 230.
 Gaunt, John of. (*See LANCASTER.*)
 Gaunt, Elisabeth, 371.
 Geoffrey, son of Henry II., 80.
 George, Prince of Denmark, husband of Queen Anne, 325, 344.
 George I., Elector of Hanover, 351—357.
 George II., King, 359—368.
 George III., King, 369—393.
 George IV., King, 394—399.
 Gibraltar, capture of, 346.
 Ginkel, General, 346.
 Glencoe, Massacre of, 333, 334.
 Gloucester, Thomas, Duke of, 138, 139.
 Gloucester, Humphrey, Duke of, 151, 160, 162, 168, 169, 170.
 Gloucester, Richard, Duke of. (*See RICHARD III.*)
 Glendower, Owen, 145, 146, 148.
 Godwin, Earl, 36, 38, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44.
 Goldsmith, Oliver, 390.
 Gordon Riots, 379.
 Gregory, Pope, 15, 16.
 Grey, Lord Richard, 188, 190.
 Grey, Lady Jane, 231, 232, 233, 234, 237.
 Greenwich Hospital, 340.
 Grenville, 370, 371.
 Gresham, Sir Thomas, 256.
 Gunhilda, 33.
 Gunpowder Plot, 268, 269.
 Gurth, brother of King Harold, 41, 43, 49, 50.
 Guthorn, Athelstan, 23.
 Guy, Count of Poitou, 45.
 Gytha, wife of Earl Godwin, 41.
- Habeas Corpus Act, 313.
 Hampton Court, Palace of, 330.
 Hampton Court Conference, 269.
 Hampden, John, 281, 286, 288.
 Hardicanute, 38, 39.
 Harold I., son of Canute, 38.
 Harold II., son of Earl Godwin, 41, 43—51.
 Harold Hardrada. (*See BATTLE OF STAMFORD BRIDGE.*)
 Harley, 346, 349, 352.
 Hastings, Battle of, 50, 51.
 Hastings, Lord, beheaded, 189, 190.
 Hatfield, Battle of, 17.
 Havelock, Sir Henry, 409, 410.
 Hawkins, Sir John, 260, 261.
 Hedgely Moor, Battle of, 180.
 Hengest, 12.
 Henry I., 62—67.
 Henry II., 72—83.
 Henry III., 95—101.
 Henry IV., 144—151.
 Henry V., 152—160.
 Henry VI., 162—181, 183, 186.
 Henry VII., 194—203.
 Henry VIII., 209, 223.
 Henry, Prince, son of Henry II., 79, 80.
 Henrietta Maria, wife of Charles I., 274, 277.
 Heptarchy, Saxon, 19.
 Hereford, Henry of. (*See HEWRY IV.*)
 Heresy, laws against, 150, 151, 154.
 Herrings, Battle of the, 163.
 Hertford. (*See SKYMOUR.*)
 Hewling, Benjamin and William, Story of, 321.
 Hexham, Battle of, 180.
 Highlanders, 332, 334, 352, 353, 363.
 Hill, Sir Rowland, 410.
 Holy Alliance, 396.
 Homildon Hill, Battle of, 146.
 Hooker, 258.
 Horsa, 12.
 Hotspur. (*See PERCY.*)
 Howe, Admiral, 386.
 Hubert, Walter. (*See PEMBROKE.*)
 Hubert de Burgh, 95, 96.
 Hugh de Puiset, 85.
 Hume, David, 390.
 Hundred Years' War, Beginning of, 123.
 Hundred Years' War renewed by Henry V., 154.
 Hundred Years' War, End of, 171.
 Huskisson. (*See RAILWAY.*)
 Hyde, Anne, wife of James II., 307.
 Hyde, Sir Edward. (*See CLARENDON.*)
- Ida, 12.
 Independence, War of. (*See AMERICAN COLONIES.*)
 India, 374—376.
 Indian Mutiny, 409, 410.
 Inkerman, Battle of, 409.
 Interdict, 90, 91.
 Ireland, Christian Missionaries sent from England to, 17.
 Ireland, Invasion of, 78.
 Ireland made a Kingdom, 223.
 Ireland, Conquest of, 262, 263.
 Ireland, Massacre in, 235, 286.
 Ireland, Cromwell in, 296.
 Ireland, James II. visits, 335.
 Ireland, Civil War in, 336.
 Ireland, Subjugation by William III., 337, 338.
 Ireland, Rebellion in, 383, 384.
 Ireland united to England, 386.
 Ireland, Famine in, 406.
 Ireton, 305.
 Isabella, Queen, wife of Edward, 118—123.
 Isabella, Queen, wife of Richard II., 189.

- James, Prince of Scotland (King James I.). 148, 159, 163.
 James IV., King of Scots, slain, 218.
 James V., 226.
 James I., King of England, 266—274.
 James II., 318—326.
 Jeffreys, Lord Chief Justice, 318, 319, 321, 323, 325, 326.
 Jenkins' ears, 361.
 Jesuits, 252, 253.
 Jews, Massacre of, 84; banishment of the, 105.
 Joan of Arc, 163—167.
 John, King, 79, 80, 81, 85, 86, 87, 89—94.
 John de Grey chosen Archbishop of Canterbury, 90.
 John Balliol, King of Scots, 106, 107, 108, 109.
 John Comyn the Red slain by Robert Bruce, 109.
 John de Vienne, Sir. (*See SIEGE OF CALAIS.*)
 John, King of France, 131, 132, 133.
 John of Gaunt. (*See LAWCASTER.*)
 Johnson, Samuel, 389, 390.
 Justiciar, 81.
 Jutes, 7, 8.
 Kent founded, 12.
 Kent, Earl of, brother of Edward II., 122.
 Kent, Edward, Duke of, 404.
 Kensington Palace, 380.
 Kenmure, 353, 354.
 Ket, Jack, 228, 229.
 Knox, John, 248, 249.
 Labourers, Statutes of, 186.
 Lambert Simnel, 199, 200.
 Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury, 57, 59.
 Langton, Stephen, 90, 92, 93, 96.
 Lancaster, Thomas, Earl of, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119.
 Lancaster, John of Gaunt, Duke of, 134, 140.
 Landen, Battle of, 338.
 Latimer, Hugh, 236, 240, 241.
 Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, 290, 291, 292, 298, 296.
 Lauderdale. (*See CABAL.*)
 La Hogue, Battle of, 338.
 Leicester, Earl of. (*See SIMON DE MONTFORT.*)
 Leowine, 41, 50.
 Leo X., 215—218.
 Lewes, Battle of, 99.
 Lewes, Mise of, 99.
 Livery, Statutes against, 205.
 Llewellyn, Prince of Wales (*See CONQUEST OF WALES.*)
 Lollards, 150.
 Londonderry, Siege of, 386.
 London, Treaty of, 397.
 Longchamp, 85, 86.
 Louis VII., 76, 79.
 Louis VIII., 94, 95.
 Louis IX., 99.
 Louis XIV., 308—311, 325, 335, 338, 340—342, 346.
 Louis XVI. (*See FRENCH REVOLUTION.*)
 Louis Napoleon, 408.
 Loyala, Ignatius. (*See JESUITS.*)
 Luddites, 395.
 Luther, Martin, 215, 216.
 Macaulay, Zachery, 404.
 Macdonald. (*See GLENCOE.*)
 Maclachan, Drowning of, 319.
 Magna Charta. (*See CHARTERS.*)
 Montcalm. (*See CAPTURE OF QUEBEC.*)
 Monopolies, 264, 273, 280.
 Monasteries, Description of, 16.
 Monasteries, Dissolution of, 220.
 Monteagle. (*See GUNPOWDER PLOT.*)
 Monmouth, James, Duke of, 314, 320, 321.
 Moore, Sir John, 387.
 Montfort, Simon de, 97—100.
 Mortimer, Roger, 119—123.
 Mortimer's Cross, Battle of, 117.
 Morton, Bishop of Ely, 189.
 Morkere, 45, 48, 49, 51.
 More, Sir Thomas, 207, 209, 211, 218, 219, 219.
 Mountjoy, Lord, 263.
 Maid of Norway, 106.
 Major-Generals, 301.
 Malplaquet, Battle of, 346.
 Maldon, Battle of, 31.
 Manchester Massacre, 381.
 March, Earl of, 146, 152, 155.
 Margaret of Anjou, 170, 175—180, 183, 184.
 Margaret, sister of Edward IV., 181.
 Margaret Roper, 219.
 Mary I., 232—242.
 Mary II., wife of William III., 328, 340.
 Mary Queen of Scots, 226, 247—253.
 Mary of Guise, 248.
 Mary of Modena, Queen, wife of James II., 324.
 Marie Antoinette, Queen of France, 380, 382.
 Marat, 381.
 Marston Moor, Battle of, 239.
 Master of Stair. (*See DALRYMPLE.*)
 Masham, Mrs., 341.
 Matilda of Flanders, Queen, wife of Henry I., 55.

- Matilda, Queen (Edith), wife of Henry I., 63.
 Matilda, Empress, 65-70.
 Marlborough, Duke of (Lord Churchill), 321, 325, 337, 339, 340, 342, 344, 345, 346, 352.
 Marlborough, Sarah, Duchess of, 339, 344, 346.
 Meetings among the Saxons, 8, 10, 14.
 Mercia, Kingdom of, 19, 20.
 Merchant Adventurers, 255.
 Methodists, 365, 366.
 Mise. (*See* LAWES.)
 Mieux, Capture of, 169.
 Monk, General, 304.
- Nana Sahib, 409.
 Napoleon Buonaparte, 385-388.
 Napoleon III., 408.
 Naseby, Battle of, 290.
 National Debt, 339, 355, 356.
 Nelson, Horatio, Lord, 385, 386.
 Neville, Earl of Salisbury, 175, 176.
 Neville, Earl of Warwick, 175, 176, 181-184.
 Neville, Montague, 182, 183.
 Neville, Isabella, daughter of the Kingmaker, marries the Duke of Clarence, 181.
 Neville, Anne, wife of Edward, Prince of Wales, 183; Marries afterwards Richard II., 185, 191, 195.
 Newbury, Battle of, 239.
 Nile, Battle of the, 385.
 Nitheisdale, Escape of, 354.
 Nonjurors, 331.
 Northampton, Battle of, 176.
 Northumbria, Kingdom of, 12, 17, 19.
 Northumberland. (*See* PERCY.)
 Northumberland. (*See* DUDLEY.)
 Norfolk, Duke of, 140.
 Normans, 32, 33.
 Northmen. (*See* NORMANS.)
- Oates, Titus, 312, 318.
 Odo, Archbishop of Canterbury, 29.
 Offa, King of Mercia, 19, 20.
 Olaf, 31.
 Oldcastle, Sir John, 153, 154.
 Orange, William Henry, Prince of. (*See* WILLIAM II.)
 Orleans, Duke of, 155.
 Orleans, Siege of, 163, 165.
 Orleans, Maid of. (*See* JOAN OF ARC.)
 Ormond, Duke of, 352.
 Oswald, 17.
 Oudenarde, Battle of, 346.
 Outram, Sir James, 409.
- Owen Glendower. (*See* GLENDOWER)
 Owen Tudor, 160.
 Oxford, Provisions of, 98.
 Oxford, Earl of. (*See* HARLEY.)
- Parker, Archbishop of Canterbury, 246.
 Parker, Sir Hyde, 386.
 Parliament, Derivation of the word, 98.
 Parliament, Commons first called to, by Simon de Montfort, 99.
 Parliament finally settled by Edward I., 111, 112.
 Parliament, Grievances of the Commons in, 115, 116.
 Parliament, Good, 134.
 Parliament makes Richard II. absolute, 139, 140.
 Parliament deposes Richard II. and elects Henry IV., 142, 143.
 Parliament makes a compromise between Henry VI. and the Duke of York, 176.
 Parliament, Struggles for freedom of Speech in, 263, 264.
 Parliament, James I. and, 272.
 Parliament, Disputes between Charles I. and, 276, 280.
 Parliament, Long, 282, 283, 285, 288.
 Parliament declares war with Charles I., 287.
 Parliament purged by Colonel Pride, 292.
 Parliament turned out by Cromwell, 299.
 Parliament recalled, 304.
 Parliament dissolves itself, 304.
 Parliament Convention, 304.
 Parliament settles the crown on William and Mary, 329.
 Parliament, Reform of, 401, 402, 408.
 Parliament, Houses of, burnt, 404.
 Paulinus, 17.
 Paul's Cross, 191.
 Peasants' Revolt, 136-138.
 Peel, Sir Robert, 396.
 Pembroke, Earl of, William Marshall, 96, 96.
 Penda, 17.
 Peninsula War, 387.
 Penny Postage, 410.
 Percy, Sir Henry (Hotspur), 146, 147.
 Percy, Earl of Northumberland, 145, 147, 148.
 Persecution, Religious beginning of, 150.
 Peter the Hermit, 64.
 Peter de Roches, 96.
 Philip, King of France, 80, 85-88, 90, 92.
 Philip III., King of France, 123.

- Philip IV. of Valois, 123, 124, 126.
 Philip III., King of Spain, 234, 238,
 239, 242, 247, 260, 262.
 Picts, 5, 6.
 Piers Gaveston, 114, 115, 116.
 Pilgrimage of Grace, 221.
 Pilgrim Fathers, 268.
 Pinkie Cleugh, Battle of, 226.
 Pitt, William, the elder, 368, 373.
 Pitt, William, the younger, 382, 383.
 Plague (Black Death), 130, 131.
 Plague of London, 303, 307.
 Pole, Reginald, 238, 239, 246.
 Poll Tax, 136—138.
 Police Force established, 392.
 Pope, Alexander, 350.
 Popish Plot, 312.
 Poor Law passed, 258, 259.
 Poor Law, Reform of the, 408.
 Portobello, Capture of, 361.
 Preston, Battle of, 363.
 Preston Pans, Battle of, 362.
 Pretender, Old, James Stuart, 351,
 352.
 Pretender, Young, Charles Edward,
 735, 362, 363.
 Pride, Colonel, 292.
 Pym, 286.

 Quebec, Capture of, 367.

 Railway first opened, 400.
 Raleigh, Sir Walter, 259, 270, 271.
 Ramillies, Battle of, 346.
 Ranulf, Flambard, 59, 62.
 Ranulf, Glanville, 84.
 Reform Bill, 401—403.
 Remonstrance, Grand, 286.
 Revival of Learning begun at Ox-
 ford, 207.
 Revolution, French, 390, 392.
 Richard, Duke of the Normans, 84.
 Richard I., Cœur de Lion, 80, 84, 88.
 Richard II., 135—143.
 Richard III. (Duke of Gloucester),
 185, 197.
 Ridley, Nicholas, Bishop of London,
 236, 237, 240, 241.
 Riot Act passed, 352.
 Rizzio, David, Murder of, 250.
 Robert, Duke of Normandy, 55, 58,
 60, 62, 64, 65.
 Robespierre, 381.
 Rochelle, Siege of, 277.
 Rogers, Bishop of Gloucester, 240.
 Rolf or Rollo, first Duke of the Nor-
 mans, 32.
 Romans, 1—6.
 Roundheads, 287.
 Rouen, Siege of, 158.
 Russell, William, Lord, 314.
 Rye House Plot, 314.
 Ryswick, Treaty of, 340.

 St. Alban's, Battles of, 175, 177.
 St. Edmund. (See EDMUND.)
 St. Rhé, Expedition to, 278.
 St. Paul's burnt, 307.
 St. Ruth, 337.
 Sacheverel, Trial of Dr., 247.
 Salisbury, Earl of. (See NEVILLE.)
 Saratoga, Battle of, 373.
 Savonarola, 206, 207.
 Saxons, 7—13.
 Scone, Stone of, 107.
 Scrope, Archbishop of York, 147.
 Scots, 5, 6.
 Scott, Sir Walter, 391.
 Sebastopol, Siege of, 409.
 Sedgemoore, Battle of, 321.
 Senlac, 50.
 Septennial Act, 354.
 Serfs, 135, 136, 138.
 Seymour, Jane, wife of Henry VIII.,
 221.
 Seymour, Sir Thomas, Earl of Hert-
 ford, 224, 226, 227.
 Shakespeare, William, 258.
 Sheriffmuir, Battle of, 353.
 Ship Money, 281.
 Shore, Jane, 190.
 Shrewsbury, Battle of, 147.
 Sidney Algernon, 315.
 Sidney, Sir Philip, 258.
 Slavery among the Saxons, 8.
 Slavery, Abolition of, 404.
 Slave Trade, 260.
 Somerset, Duke of, 224—230.
 Somerset House built, 229.
 Sophia, wife of George I., 351.
 South Sea Scheme, 355—357.
 Spanish Succession, War of, 341,
 345—347.
 Spenser, Edmund, 258.
 Spurs, Battle of the, 212.
 Staffords, Revolt of the, 199.
 Stamford Bridge, Battle of, 49.
 Star Chamber, 205, 281, 285.
 Steam Engine, 378.
 Steele, 349.
 Stephen of Blois, King, 68—71.
 Stephenson, 400.
 Strongbow, 78.
 Suffolk, Duke of, father of Lady
 Jane Grey, 235.
 Suffolk, William de la Pole, Earl of,
 170—172.
 Supremacy Act, 245, 246.
 Sussex, 12.
 Swegen, son of Godwin, 41, 42, 43,
 44.
 Sweyn or Swegen, King of the Danes,
 32—34.
 Swift, 350.

 Taylor, Rowland, 240.
 Test Act, 310.

- Tetbury, 215.
 Tewkesbury, Battle of, 128.
 Theatre, First, 257.
 Thistlewood, 295.
 Thomsons' Games, 290.
 Thor, 10.
 Tooke, John, 208.
 Tories, 213.
 Tostig, 41, 43, 45, 46, 48, 49.
 Townships, 44.
 Towton, Battle of, 179.
 Treaties. (See under particular games).
 Tresham, 229.
 Trial of the Seven Bishops, 223, 224.
 Triers, 200.
 Triple Alliance, 209.
 Troyes, Treaty of, 159.
 Tyrrel, Sir Walter, 61.
 Tyrcounel, 234.
 Tyrone, Shan O'Neill, Earl of, 262.

 Uniformity, Act of, 245.
 United States, 273.
 Union of England and Scotland, 249.
 Union of England and Ireland, 285.
 Utrecht, Peace of, 247.

 Vernon, Admiral, 261.
 Vinegar Hill, 284.
 Victoria, Queen, 405—412.

 Wakefield, Battle of, 176.
 Walls built by the Romans, 5.
 Wallace, William, 108.
 Waltham, 54.
 Walter de Manny, 127.
 Wales, 13.
 Wales, conquest of, 108; 104.
 Wales made one with England, 223.
 Walpole, Sir Robert, 265—261.
 Warwick, Earl of. (See NEVILLE.)
 Warwick, Earl of, son of the Duke of Clarence, 203.
 Warbeck, Perkin, 202, 203.
 Warren Hastings, 276.
 Washington, General, 273.
 Watling Street, 23.

 Wat Tyler. (See PEASANTS.)
 Watt, James, 272.
 Waterloo, Battle of, 228.
 Wedmore, Peace of, 23.
 Welles, Lord, 122.
 Welles, Sir Robert. (See LORD WELLES.)
 Wellesley, Sir Arthur. (See WELLESLEY.)
 Wellington, Duke of, 287, 288, 296.
 Wentworth, Strafford, Earl of, 281, 283, 284.
 Wessex, 12.
 Westminster Abbey, 46, 207, 208.
 Wesley, John. (See METHODISTS.)
 Wexford, Storm of, 296.
 White Ship, Wreck of the, 65.
 Whigs, 212.
 Whitfield. (See METHODISTS.)
 Whitehall, 212.
 William I., King, Conqueror, 43, 47—57.
 William II., King, Rufus, 58—61.
 William III., King, Prince of Orange, 310, 324—342.
 William IV., King, 400—404.
 William, Prince, son of Henry I., 65.
 Will of Henry VIII., 225.
 Wilberforce, 404.
 Witenagemot, 14.
 Wolf, General. (See CAPTURE OF QUEBEC.)
 Wolsey, Thomas, Cardinal, 212—214, 217, 218.
 Worcester, Battle of, 297.
 Wordsworth, William, 291.
 Woodville. (See GREY.)
 Wren, Sir Christopher. (See ST. PAUL'S.)
 Wyatt's Rebellion, 225, 226.
 Wycliffe, 150.

 York, Richard, Duke of, 174—177.
 York, Richard, Duke of, murdered in the Tower, 180, 183, 194.
 York, Elizabeth of, Queen, wife of Henry VII., 195, 198, 199, 201.
 Young, 290.







